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Dove avete trovato, Messer Lodovico, tante corbellerie? If the dazed reader were to put to President Hall the discourteous question with which Cardinal Ippolito received the *Orlando Furioso*, he would find his answer in the words of the introduction: "For twenty-five years I have lectured Saturday mornings to teachers and to students upon education. . . . During these years I find that I have given over seven hundred outside addresses on educational subjects . . . and written several score of magazine articles." The book is a compilation, a recasting, or, as the author would style it, a "conflation," of all this material and much more taken from printed and unprinted theses of students. Its unity is that of President Hall's multifarious interests, discursive reading, and uncorrelated opinions. The chapters have no other logical bond of connection. It is 1,400 pages of miscellaneous information and comment on every conceivable topic associated with education in any of its phases—the whole conveyed in a verbose, but readable, style, and in a diction curiously compounded of journalese and the most grotesque neologisms of the social and psychological sciences. The method by which the book is swollen to these dimensions was foreseen and aptly described by the Greek logicians: "An argument

¹ *Educational Problems*. By G. Stanley Hall, Ph.D., LL.D., New York and London: D. Appleton & Co., 1911. 2 vols. Pp. xiii+710+714.

may be expanded to infinity by the redundant interpolation of supererogatory propositions in the premises, as for example: 'If it is day it is light; but it is day, and virtue is also excellent. Therefore it is light.'"¹

President Hall's favorite ideas are of course emphasized throughout: child-study the co-ordinating center, not only of education, but of all the social sciences; the primacy of feeling over thought; the blighting effects of accuracy on the expansion of the youthful soul, and the special harmfulness of Latin; industrial education; the education of the larger muscles; flogging for contumacious boys; the segregated education of women; and, penetrating and suffusing all, the steaming miasma of his morbid preoccupation with sex.

Apart from these and similar recurrent *Leitmotivs* the book offers little occasion for nicely discriminating assent or dissent. All doctrines find expression in it, and rhetorical elaboration. President Hall has at one time or another picked up and adopted all current ideas, notions, and formulas, including those of his opponents. But his Emersonian indifference to co-ordination and subordination and what the commonplace logical mind calls consistency has no parallel except in the babble of the high-school girls, whose engaging prattle he reports at more than sufficient length. At the very beginning the word *kindergarten* shunts him off on a three- or four-page rhapsody about children and gardens. The casual and uninhibited association of ideas is his principle of sufficient reason. In Vol. II, p. 331, he complains of the reporter who attributed to him the view that "girls of sixteen are utterly irreligious." But the reporter was surely excusable if he had read the statement on p. 20 that the "tendron" is by nature almost utterly unreligious. Of course if "tendron" is the scientific designation of girls between twelve and fourteen, the inconsistency may be explained away. But the last girl mentioned was "a charming miss of fifteen," who in place of the "desiccated herbarium

¹ Sextus Empiricus *adv. Math.* viii. 429: κατὰ δὲ παρολκὴν ἀπέραντος γίνεται ὁ λόγος ὅταν ἐξωθέν τι καὶ περισσῶς παραλαμβάνεται τοῖς λήμμασι, καθάπερ ἐπὶ τοῦ οὕτως ἔχοντος "εἰ ἡμέρα ἐστὶ, φῶς ἐστίν· ἀλλὰ μὴν ἡμέρα ἐστίν· ἀλλὰ καὶ ἡ ἀρετὴ ὠφελεῖ· φῶς ἄρα ἐστίν." Of course ἀπέραντος is equivocal. I take the meaning that suits the present context.

knowledge" and the "exactness and thoroughness which is the pedagogue's fetish" had responded to the teaching of botany with the more "humanistic and vital," the more "naïve and natural reaction" that the study of a "flower marriage" is improper. How was the reporter to know that religion set in one year later?

I have been rebuked¹ for making light of the great movement for the scientific study of education, against the tidal advancement of which persiflage is as impotent as Mrs. Partington's broom. That the ultimate issue of these pioneer efforts will be a science of education I neither affirm nor deny—being no prophet. But in the interest of sober and cautious investigators, as well as for the protection of a gullible public, there will long be occasion for the humbler service of protestants who decline to be gulled.

"The psychology of giggling, so far as it has been investigated, shows that it has many causes. . . . A number of our observers testify that it is intensified by the presence or even the approach at a distance of a boy."² Our psychological, sociological, and pedagogical friends must stop printing this sort of thing if they expect to be taken seriously by their colleagues in scholarship and the physical sciences. They must not turn one face to the public and another to us. Since the publication of my protest against the abuse of the dogma that generalized mental discipline is a myth,³ I have repeatedly been told that if I had not been a mere amateur in psychological literature I should have been aware that the latest experiments, properly interpreted, confirm my view. As Hazlitt once observed in a similar case, it is hard to find one's self in the right after all. As it happens, I was familiar with and alluded to some of these experiments. But my point was, first, that as yet all experiments are too simple to decide so complicated an issue, and second, that an overwhelming majority of recent writers on education do not scruple to tell the public that science has spoken, and that the disciplinary values of, e.g., algebra and Latin have been disproved in the laboratory. In the work before me, for example, President Hall says (Vol. II, p. 653): "Once it

¹ See *School and Home Education*, December, 1911, p. 135.

² Vol. II, pp. 17-18.

³ *School Review*, Vol. XVIII, p. 607.

was thought that this process gave a generalized type of ability or general culture, but the very existence of such a thing is now disputed by the psychologists. . . . Thus the last stronghold of the apologists of Latin on its present basis is shattered." It is true that on p. 276, writing of modern languages and of the vernacular, he says that "the habit of normal idiomatic expression developed in one language helps the other, and that thus the linguistic soil is loosened and fertilized."¹ But the public cannot be expected to compare the two passages and note the contradiction. For the public reads as President Hall himself reads, and would have us teach our students to read in English departments freed from the yoke of the classics, both English and Latin, "very extensively and cursorily" (p. 655) that the soul may absorb "suggestions, typical facts in a vague and unaccountable way" (p. 651). Does he really suppose that this natural human slackness needs to be encouraged in the American undergraduate? "Young people," he says, "are just in the stage when they will profit most by the kind of instruction now given by those many ladies who describe the works of leading living writers of fiction. . . . The souls of even girls would expand under the tuition of those who read and comment on Tennyson, Shakespeare, and even tell about Ibsen and his work" (Vol. II, p. 656). But is it quite certain that the chief function of the school is to "vastate the soul" and enlarge the "alghedonic diameter" of even girls? Something may perhaps be left for the home, the Sunday school, and the extension lecture.

The real cause of the present misunderstanding between the representatives of pedagogy and their colleagues of the liberal arts is well stated in the admirable first sentence of President Hall's book: "The more advanced the student and the more specialized the teaching, the less pedagogy and genetic educational philosophy figure." It is undoubtedly true that our exclusive concern with maturer students and more advanced subjects tends to blunt our perception of the necessity for systematic generalizing study of method and organization and correlation in the teaching of the

¹ It would be precisely in the manner of President Hall's method of reasoning from metaphors for me to argue here that a dead language is the best fertilizer. See his portentous elaboration of the dead-language figure, Vol. II, p. 256.

young. But it is equally true that, starting from this reasonable presumption, the professional students of education have magnified their office and enlarged their claims beyond all reason. It is not to be expected that we should renounce all the lessons of our own observation and experience and reject all the presuppositions of common-sense at the first challenge of sciences which, so far as they have yet taken shape in formal treatises, remind President Hall himself of the "barber's apprentice who became a master workman when he could whip up two ounces of soap into two barrels of lather." The ground must be fought over inch by inch until these pretensions are abated within reasonable limits. Professor Paul Hanus, for example, once gravely deplored the fact that the history of education is not taught in high schools. But which of the "sciences" is competent to contradict the immediate perception of the trained scholar and historian that the history of education would simply muddle the mind of the high-school student and could serve no end but that of the dogmatic propaganda of disputable doctrines? It is in its very nature a "post-graduate" study. Very few collegiate students are prepared either to make or to follow intelligently such a cross-section of the history of civilization as the special study of the history of education requires.

This review threatens to be as discursive as its subject. I cannot test President Hall's analysis of the "gongbeat method of the Sarawak Malays" or verify his suggestion that the "paeonic and hemiolic rhythms" of the second Olympian and fifth Pythian odes were "probably overlain by musical rhythms, just as the tawak accompanies the drum and gong orchestra." Can he? I am not enough of an expert in those fields to estimate his numerous dicta about the teaching of mathematics, music, geography, and dancing. Is he? When I read his chapters on the pedagogy of language, history, and literature, where I have some slight experience, I am reminded of the physicist, the mathematician, and the geologist, each of whom thought Spencer's *First Principles* was magnificent in the two other departments, but "rotten" in his own.

In the matter of moral and religious education, we all deem ourselves competent. President Hall eloquently deplores the

world-wide modern relaxation of moral discipline, and affirms the necessity of supplementing moral by religious instruction. Unfortunately he has no religion, or rather no theology, to offer—nothing but “cosmic emotion,” which he refuses to “small down” with the Comptists to Humanity or with James and Fechner to the solar system. No pent-up Utica confines his Whitmanian religiosity. “I am a son of the sky and the nebulae; thence I came and into them I shall be resolved. To contemplate them is navel-gazing and saying ‘Om’” (Vol. I, p. 139). This is the religion of the “adult cultivated male intellect.” But the child’s soul imperatively requires more than this, and President Hall proposes to meet the demand by furnishing “a complete religious education on the recapitulatory theory,” from fetishism to pantheism. Neither ethical culture nor President Eliot’s religion of the future will suffice. Much that President Hall says on this point is forcibly put, but he overlooks an insuperable difficulty. The child’s soul also requires, above all things else, sincerity in its teachers, and is disconcertingly acute in the detection of affectation and pretense. There can be no true edification in religious instruction imparted or directed by those who believe only that it is a good thing—for the recipient. Those who, like President Hall, have themselves no theology, and yet distrust the adequacy of purely secular moral teaching, have but one recourse. They must hold their tongues and leave the work to be done by others.

Once more, it is quite impossible to do justice to the enormous mass of fact, opinion, and edifying comment assembled in these fourteen hundred pages. It is, for the insufficiency of my own vocabulary compels me to borrow that of the author, a “unique culture-bouillon,” “a nondescript mother-lye of the higher moral life.” If I nevertheless feel justified in dwelling as I have done on the conspicuous faults of the work, it is because they are precisely those to which the public is already most inclined and in which it ought not to be encouraged by a writer of President Hall’s ability and prominence. In the present condition of our schools and colleges there is not the slightest excuse for exalting sentiment above disciplined intelligence, and emotional impressionability above accuracy, or advocating greater laxity in the use and abuse

of the American language. "Who ever asked if the Blessed Virgin could read Greek?" A writer who employs these methods cannot complain of the reviewer who endeavors to give his gems appropriate setting.

President Hall ironically observes that his critics complain that he has no style. My complaint is that he has altogether too much. He is, in his own terminology, a "holophrastic idealist." He cannot say a simple thing in a simple way. He must rhapsodize about it for three or four pages. He must pile up useless synonyms and technicalities. He must bring in tags of languages which he has not learned, employ words of which he has forgotten the etymology, and which he or his proofreaders cannot spell, misapply or garble familiar quotations, and drag in far-fetched and irrelevant allusions to his desultory reading. He seems to think that "*modus vivendi*" means "manner of living," and that "*in petto*" means "on a small scale." He talks of "Romains" lectures, "N. Faguet of the French Academy," and Grote, "who swept away everything in Greece before the Doric invention" (*sic*) (Vol. II, p. 292). He continues of course to attribute to Plato and Aristotle propositions that would have made them gasp and stare. He credits Lowell with Burke's reported saying about the nodosities of the oak and the contortions of the sibyl. Latin is for him alternately the red rag to the bull and the candle to the moth, and always brings him bad luck in the shape of such forms as *floriant* and *feminia*. He wants to "*curriculize*" "*uncurricularized*" experiences, and talks familiarly of "startaric" reading, "chrestomata," and "olegantropy" (*sic*). The last must be something very horrid indeed, if, as he forewarns us (Vol. I, p. 429,) its "fit punishment is a barren life and a loveless old age." The phrasing and the syntax match the diction. "There is something in the cake-walk which seems to me the very apotheosis of human love-antics." Enjoyment of a work of art is "the acme of hedonic narcosis." The dancing of an elderly man is (Vol. I, p. 47) "the spontaneous senescent infection with the Terpsichorean spell." When President Hall is stirred by music, his soul is "vastated" and he "senses the vast encompassing phyletic environment." When he feels that he is making progress in the study of a new language he experiences

"the truest avatar of *Sprachgefühl*." The reader must divine for himself such syntactical riddles as (Vol. I, p. 428), "The number of children born of native American parents is now less than in any country of the world"; or (Vol. II, p. 286), "The percentage of juvenile crime is both increasing and becoming more precocious."

These observations will confirm President Hall's conviction that "the professors of Greek and Latin always tend to exalt form over content and substance" (Vol. II, p. 259). But an educator of his position and influence who in the present state of our schools systematically denounces accuracy and exalts undisciplined emotional expansion must expect dwellers in the opposite camp to scrutinize the practical outcome of his faith in his own works.

THE HIGH-SCHOOL BOY'S MORALS

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To one who has had experience with boys in American secondary schools, the most striking and significant thing observed in a visit to the famous Rugby School is the absence of lockers in the cricket clubhouse. Arranged on long benches or tables are open bags containing the clothing and other paraphernalia of the game and on each bag are the initials of the owner. It is evident that the knowledge that an article belongs to another boy is sufficient guaranty that it will be unmolested. The claim that the public schools of England are attended only by the sons of gentlemen seems justified. The term gentleman as thus applied stands for more than membership in an aristocracy either of birth or of wealth; it includes an accepted standard of honesty and sportsmanship higher than we have as yet attained, higher almost than we have dared to hope for among the boys of our public and private secondary schools.

Contrast with this typical situation in an English public school—which, it should be observed, is not a public but essentially a private school according to our meaning of the term—the condition in our own schools. Not only is the American high-school boy often without the moral standard which prevents the appropriation of articles not his own which are within his easy reach, but steel-maker and locksmith have not yet devised a locker which is strong enough to withstand his strength or ingenuity. Nothing that is not nailed down is absolutely safe. Not all boys in all schools are thieves, but there is often current, even among those whose moral standards are fairly high in other respects, a fine distinction between “swiping” and stealing which defies definition but which is appealed to in defense of delinquencies of this sort. One sometimes meets an attempt to explain the situation on the ground that our democratic social order throws together in the same school boys from

homes of culture and the sons of immigrants and others of low social standing. One might accept this as an explanation, in part at least, did not experience show that it is not always Isaac Goldstein or Pietro Luigi who is caught with the plunder but quite as often those whose names have a more patrician ring. The writer was speaking before a meeting of parents in an aristocratic suburb on the moral phases of high-school life, and in the discussion that followed one gentleman felt called upon to defend the moral standards of his community by claiming that any such condition as I described was due to the presence in the school of the children of foreigners. After the meeting closed a teacher in the high school told me that the worst case of thieving which had come to light during the year was the son of the clergyman of the leading church in the town.

Another form of the same practice is seen in the collection of souvenirs of every sort made by boys while on athletic trips or in the towns where boarding-schools are situated. Street signs, silverware, towels, and even bedding from hotels and dining-cars are considered fair plunder and often adorn the rooms in school and college dormitories or serve more practical purposes. A college alumnus recently told me that the waning supply of towels and bedding in his fraternity chapter house was always renewed at the close of the tour of the glee club, from the unofficial proceeds of the expedition. The football team of a well-known school on arriving at its destination was obliged, in order to avoid arrest, to surrender a motley collection of articles "swiped" from the dining-car *en route*. A few years ago, on one of the long trips which are sometimes taken at the season's end to determine which of two teams representing regions far apart is superior, a certain high-school team not only secured athletic fame but wide notoriety as well by reason of the wholesale plunder gathered along its route.

In athletic contests there are perhaps afforded the most frequent exhibitions of dishonesty. This has most often to do with the eligibility of players. Last summer in the public-school league of one of our largest cities a controversy arose over the age of one of the players. A comparison of the records which he had made in two schools revealed the fact that between the first high-school

record and the last he had in some manner lost a year from his life. There were presented in the case various documents including statements from the boy's parents and family physician to show that the first record was an error, but after long and careful investigation the boy was declared over age and was debarred from playing. The moral injury in cases of ineligibility is often shared not by one or two but by many, sometimes by a whole school, who feel that they must if necessary lie not once but many times, to defend what they are pleased to call the honor of their school. The damage is thus all the more insidious because it involves the exercise of a generous instinct of loyalty to one's school. Cases are not infrequent in which persons in authority in the school have guilty knowledge of the facts. Sometimes it would seem that they are accomplices in fraud. Some years ago the writer knew of the case of a young instructor who was given charge of a baseball team on a trip to another school, who actually played on the team, assuming the name of one of the boys. The youth of the teacher, together with the fact that as coach of the team he felt an unusual desire for its success, may be given as explanation but not as excuse for his conduct. The same could not be suggested to cover the case which came to my attention not long ago. A boy with his father came to my office to arrange for his entrance to the school. In the course of the interview the conversation led to his life in the school from which he came, a school whose published announcements lay claim to consideration because of the strong moral influence exerted upon its boys. The boy referred with pride to the fine record of their football team, saying that they had never lost a game on the home ground, although on one occasion it had looked as if they would lose the game when their principal, whom he called by name, had put into the game under an assumed name a former graduate of the school of great fame on the gridiron. His skill at the game led to the discovery of his identity and his removal from the game. I was much struck by the fact that this incident seemed in no remotest way the cause for the contemplated change of schools in the mind either of the father or of the son.

However demoralizing some of these conditions in public or private schools are, they can hardly equal those existing in some

Sunday-school athletic leagues organized for the purpose of promoting an interest in this department of church work. In public-school leagues more or less responsible control is exercised by authorities, but in the case of Sunday-school athletic competition this is largely lacking. In a certain city the rivalry between schools has led to a great influx of lusty boys for the two Sundays of attendance required by the rules of the league prior to the decisive contests. In this respect the effect is like that of the approaching picnic of former days. I noticed one morning in the list of winners of the events in the annual Sunday-school track-meet the names of a Jewish and a Catholic boy in my own high school. Calling them to my office, I asked them when they had joined the _____ church. With sheepish smiles they said that they had not joined the church but had entered the Sunday school two weeks before to help win the championship of the city. When asked if they thought this was in accordance with the standards of sportsmanship which we had been accustomed to maintain, they said, "No, we're just plain ringers, but we thought as it was a Sunday school it would be all right." Another case, reported on good authority, was of a boy who added substantially to the victory of a Sunday-school team who had never been in the school at all but had attended the required two Sundays by proxy, having sent another boy who registered under his name.

Another form of dishonesty to be found in most schools is seen in the relation of pupil to teacher. This appears in written work, in equivocating and false excuses for failure to meet the requirements of school routine, and sometimes in more flagrant forms, such as in forging credentials from one school to another. Boys who would not think of lying to a fellow-student do not hesitate to tell the most glaring falsehoods to their teachers. One is reminded of the student's definition of a college dean as quoted by Dean Briggs: "A man you lie to and get mad with for not believing you." And while one must commend the sense of honor which prevents a student from giving information against a fellow-student which would work to his damage, it is a matter for regret that the student who is known by his fellows to practice all sorts of deceit upon his instructors does not seem to lose caste among them.

My object in painting this dark picture is not to prove myself a pessimist, for an experience of twenty years in dealing with secondary-school pupils has made of me a thoroughgoing optimist. There is, however, nothing to be gained by refusing to see the facts. On the contrary, a recognition of the conditions is essential to the removal of what is wrong. What are the causes of this lack of moral discrimination among our boys and girls—for the case with the girls is not essentially different from that of their brothers? One who studies the situation is led to the conclusion that these instances are but illustrations of a fundamental lack of moral standards in our society at large. The boys are probably as honest in their sports as their fathers are in business. Many a parent not only does not think of censuring his son for these dishonest practices but even laughs at them as something smart and on the whole commendable. School boys naturally imitate the practices of college students, and the evils of college life are likely to be presented to him in more attractive colors than the serious side of the college student's life. They make a better story either for the newspaper or for conversation. The high-school fraternity owes its inception largely to this habit of imitation of college life. The elaborate codes of rules governing intercollegiate athletics reflect the evils which they attempt, often vainly, to remove. And the exhibition which faculty committees afford when dealing with charges of athletic ineligibility often reveal a situation of mutual suspicion between rival institutions and a desire to secure an advantage rather than to discover and act upon the real facts in the case. The immediate cause of most of the difficulties in athletics is the inordinate importance which the winning of the game has in the school boy's mind. For this we can hardly blame him when we consider that this is the general attitude of the public toward sports. Another source of evil is found in the prominence given to school-boy athletes by the newspapers in which they are placed before the sporting public in the same manner as prize-fighters and other professional athletes. Furthermore much harm comes to the boys who take trips half-way across the continent to settle the claims for the football championship of the entire country.

And what about the remedy in the case? The writer is not

prepared to accept for the school the entire responsibility for the cure of these evils, for they are too widely spread throughout our social order; but as a school man he is of the opinion that the school represents the most effectively organized agency for dealing with the immediate problem. It may fairly be said that neither the home nor the church exercises so effectual control over boys and girls during the period of secondary education as does the school. Of late there has been much discussion of moral education through the school. There is danger that while we are devoting much time to a discussion of the relative value of the direct and indirect method of moral instruction and of other more or less theoretical phases of the question we shall lose sight of the opportunity for practical moral instruction which is at hand.

In the last analysis it is simply a question of teaching a boy to distinguish between truth and falsehood, and to desire to tell the truth. Too much school discipline fails to discriminate between the essential and the non-essential. In some schools a boy would prefer to be caught telling a lie rather than smoking a cigarette. In a well-disciplined school, aside from certain outbreaking forms of wrongdoing, no offense should be considered so serious as dishonesty, and even these grosser offenses may be less fundamentally serious though perhaps demanding more drastic punishment at the time. It should be understood that there is no offense that may not in a measure, at least, be atoned for by an honest statement of fact. Teachers too often attempt to "bluff" pupils whom they suspect of some misdemeanor and the pupils assume that in lying they are only employing the same method of defense. Straightforwardness on the part of the teacher will more often be met by a similar response from the pupil. The writer once had reason to think that two boys had been guilty of a "rough-house" escapade. He called each to his office and told him frankly the reasons he had for thinking him guilty, stating that these were the only reasons; that he would take his statement as to whether he was guilty as true; and that if he were guilty punishment would follow. Each frankly acknowledged his guilt. Had another method been employed, I am convinced that each would have lied and I should have found myself in the embarrassing position in which we teachers

often find ourselves, convinced of a pupil's guilt but baffled in the attempt to secure a confession of it, and the boys would have gone out with less respect for the master on whom they had been able to "put one over." As it was they went from the office and reported that they had been treated "on the square." Most boys have an innate sense of fair play, and it is possible to develop among school boys a feeling which regards truthfulness as courageous and lying as the sign of a "yellow streak." It is, however, possible to confront a pupil in such a way that there is strong likelihood that he will lie, whereas another method would save him from such an unhappy disaster. It is an occasion for searching of heart on the part of a teacher when he finds that a pupil has told him a lie.

The field of sport, as no other, affords opportunity for inculcating the spirit and practice of fair play in a school. The enthusiasm of the school centers about athletics. The captain of the eleven or the nine is the hero of the school. Consciously or unconsciously he is imitated by all the boys of the school. However crooked may be the practices of a school team, it is regarded as part of a boy's loyalty to his school to support the team against all rivals. A tradition for clean athletics is of priceless value in the moral life of a school. Happily, many schools have this. A well-known academy on the day following a great track-meet voluntarily sent back the trophy of victory because it had been discovered by the school authorities that one of their point winners had been ineligible. All the trophies proudly displayed on the walls of their gymnasium have not brought such honor to the school as this one which might have been retained had the moral standard of the school been less high. In another school, following the annual football game with its closest rival, it was discovered that a player on the winning team had been ineligible by reason of some scholastic requirement which had been overlooked before the game. A letter was promptly sent to the opposing school stating the fact and relinquishing the victory. And the rival school acknowledged this act of good sportsmanship but declined to accept the victory.

When athletics do not contribute to the moral development of a school it is because of a failure to recognize their value as a factor

in moral training when under responsible control. Boys should not be blamed for the evils of athletics which are often so apparent and are so much decried. School athletic teams are too often placed in charge of irresponsible coaches, whose personal morals are questionable, whose standards of sportsmanship are low, and whose reputation as coaches or as popular idols in the community depends upon winning games at whatever cost. This is in sharp contrast with the practice of the English public schools, in which the masters feel it as much a part of their work to share in the sports of the boys upon the playgrounds as to instruct them in the classroom. It is not difficult to trace to its source the real reason why sport is enjoyed by English school boys for its own sake and why the low standards of honesty and sportsmanship so often appearing in American schools are not found there. A few schools have recognized the value of physical directors of high character and clear insight into the moral significance of athletic games. A new type of expert is developing who promises to revolutionize the athletic life of our schools. In the place of the man who teaches boys how to commit a foul without detection or to beat the pistol at the start of the race, there is now appearing another who trains his boys to play the game within the spirit as well as the letter of the rules and inspires them with the belief that the team cannot afford to win a game by any other than fair means. And this spirit is quickly caught by an entire school, which thus shares the moral training which is first given to the members of the team. At the close of a most successful track season, the captain of the team said before the school that he was proud of the fact that all their trophies had been won by a team which had never committed a foul. And the statement was met with ringing cheers.

There is no one whose position makes him so powerful a moral factor in a school as the physical director. Not even the principal can do so much directly to clear the moral vision of the boys as the physical director who meets them in relations in which their real inner lives and motives are more clearly revealed. A good illustration of the incidental moral instruction which such a man may give came to the writer's attention. The student manager of a team was sent to secure some expensive articles of equipment.

He returned with one more than was ordered, and being asked why he had the extra one said, with apparent satisfaction at his managerial smartness, that he had noticed the clerk had given him one more than he had paid for but that he had not thought it necessary to call his attention to it. The boy was much surprised when he was told that he must return the extra article at once, and declared that it was not his fault but was "one on the clerk." But the boy finally did as directed, and learned that "the fellows have got to be on the square with the Doctor all the time." And the lesson given to this boy doubtless reached many others in the school, a lesson sorely needed in these days when petty graft is of such common occurrence. This case well illustrates the type of opportunity for sound moral training which comes to the physical director daily as he meets the boys in the gymnasium and on the athletic field. And it is because the occasions for this moral instruction do not have to be dragged in, but arise naturally in the activities in which the boys and the director work together with joyous enthusiasm, that his moral influence is more potent than that of any other school officer.

Every autumn many thousands of pupils enter our secondary schools from homes representing widely varying standards, their standards unformed but to be determined and made permanent during the years immediately following. In four years or less they will go forth to college or the work of life with a moral bent which will not subsequently be greatly changed. In these four years the school by its formal work and the social activities which center in it may and usually does influence them more profoundly than any or all other agencies. Teachers should see clearly the responsibility which is theirs for the moral training of these citizens of tomorrow and should receive from their communities the support which they need in the solution of these problems which confront us all.

THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL OF THE MIDDLE WEST: A MINNESOTA TYPE

GEORGE B. AITON

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Our high schools are rapidly approaching a national standard. Miss Sara A. Burstall, a shrewd English observer who looked in on us in 1908, noted an "astonishing" uniformity:

There is more uniformity in the high-school course of study, over an area from Minneapolis to Boston, and from Washington to St. Louis (which takes two days and nights to cross by train) than in the half-dozen secondary schools in the one city of Manchester. This is not a matter of law; it is a matter of common consent. . . . All the best schools have the same things, which are, it is presumed, the best at that particular time, as is the prevailing hat, or shirt waist, or set of furs.

In buildings, equipment, ratio of instructors to enrolment, coeducation, length of course, textbooks, methods of instruction, and requirements for graduation, there is essential agreement. The term "American high school" has acquired a more definite meaning than has the term "American college." In all parts of the country, secondary schools not up to the mark realize that they bear the name only by courtesy, and are hastening to reach the national standard.

At the same time, change is coming on apace. Our schools are differentiating—not in essentials and not in all subjects. In meeting the call for practical education, each section of the country is shaping a part of a course or one of several courses to meet local demands. It is reasonable to suppose that all progressive coeducational schools will take on home economics, but the needs of the homemaker are much the same wherever the home may be. It is in arranging a portion of the work for boys that the greatest diversity must appear.

In fact, the high schools of the Middle West are differentiating rapidly. The schools of the larger cities are moving in the direction

of commercial subjects and the mechanic arts, while the schools of the smaller towns and rural centers are giving attention to subjects of agricultural value. The large high school is beginning to study city life and city problems and the small high school is beginning to study rural life and rural problems. It is already evident that the progressive city high school of the near future is to be based in part on the life and the industry of the city and that the equally progressive small school is to be based on the life and the industry of the country. Two types of high schools are rising—the large and the small. Standard subjects and home economics are to be found in both. Commerce and manufacturing are to be emphasized in the one; agriculture, in some of its forms, in the other.

A definite attempt to develop schools of the latter type has been made in Minnesota. Encouraged by state aid, over ninety of our schools have employed graduates of agricultural colleges and are working on the problem of agricultural education. A concrete example may be found in the state high school of Cokato. Conditions are favorable. The village has scant eight hundred inhabitants. It is situated in a fertile country of rolling prairie and small lakes, a short two hours by western train from Minneapolis. The town and surrounding territory are settled by intelligent, thrifty, church-going Scandinavians, Germans, and Americans. Highways, country churches, rural schoolhouses, co-operative creameries, dairy barns, orchards, nurseries, and a fair proportion of well-bred stock give the country-side an air of thrift and prosperity. The farmers are emulous, well disposed toward co-operation, and take pride in winning firsts at county, state, and national exhibits.

The village serves as a center, and is known legally as the central district. Thirteen surrounding common-school districts club with the village for agricultural and industrial purposes, and are known legally as associated districts. The school officers of the associated districts, three members from each, thirty-nine in all, form a board having authority to levy a special tax for associated purposes. Each rural board elects one of its members to sit with the six members of the central school board to spend the funds of the associated districts and to employ the special instructors required by law. The board of tax levy sits annually as a board

of review. It audits the report of the treasurer of the central school as to associated expenditure and hears the report and recommendations of the superintendent.

The associated board has provided a blacksmith shop on the grounds of the central school. The village, that is to say the central school, has erected a building in size the equivalent of a twelve-room grade building, with additional space in a basement. Five rooms are set apart for the use of the village grades. The usual high-school assembly room, laboratory, and recitation rooms are in evidence. Shopwork requires the equivalent of three rooms. Agriculture has even more room; home economics has special quarters, and a room is set aside for the training of rural teachers. During the past two years, not including the current school year, the associated district has expended \$3,298 for reference books and outfit, exclusive of the department of agriculture. As might be expected, shops and kitchen come in for the larger amounts; but the school library has received \$350. The money has been laid out with judgment. With the purchases of the present year, the school may be said to have the foundation of an adequate, but not a wasteful, equipment.

The activities of the school organization are all directed by the village superintendent; they include: (1) an independent rural school in each of the thirteen associated districts; (2) a training school for rural teachers; (3) the usual eight grades of the village school—190 pupils; (4) the ordinary high school of four years—North Central Association standards; (5) industrial departments; (6) a winter short course; (7) an experimental farm; (8) agricultural extension.

The rural schools vary in size and are controlled each by its own board of three. The village board has no authority over them, but they have pride in being a part of the larger union. Under legal arrangement with the board of review they are visited by the village superintendent and by the industrial instructors. Their teachers are in close personal touch with the central school. Their methods are up to date. They have school libraries, supplementary reading, reference books, maps, globes, and other equipment.

The school for training rural teachers is a valuable part of the

system. Quarters are provided for the exclusive use of the department. The course is one year in length. At least one year of high-school work is required for entrance. Students who have had not less than three years of high-school work and who do the year of training work are granted high-school diplomas and are entitled without further examination to first-grade teachers' certificates, good for any rural school in the state. These students, a round dozen in number, are in charge of an instructor who gives her entire time to them. They divide their time between instructing small groups of grade pupils and the study of the elementary phases of the common branches. Teacher and students give the year to preparation for rural work. At the close of the course the graduates are in demand, and as a matter of fact already fill the positions in the various associated schools.

The usual eight grades of a village school are maintained. This part of the school is governed exclusively by the rules of the central board. The teachers, five in number, are graduates of state normal schools, and receive salaries ranging from \$50 to \$60 per month. The enrolment is about two hundred. Textbooks are free. The grades are responsible to the superintendent, but the director of the teachers' training school spends half of each day in seeing that small groups of grade pupils are instructed properly by the training teachers. Her relationship to the grades, therefore, is so constant and so intimate that this part of the school has the virtual advantage of an expert supervisor.

The high school is organized in the usual way, and is taught by a principal and six assistants. All but one are college graduates. The lowest salary paid is \$630 for the school year of nine months; the highest salary paid an instructor is \$1,350. The high school is attended by over one hundred students. Tuition is free in all departments, but, as this may be said of each of two hundred and eight state high schools, the attendance is confined to students from the village and the trading community. Classes are maintained in some thirty subjects. There are the usual classes in mathematics, history, science, English, and foreign languages. Due attention is given to commercial subjects and to political economy.

The industrial departments are an integral part of the school. They are stimulated by a special state grant to be named later. Every effort is made to adapt the work to the local needs of a farming community. In the sewing-room, ornamental and decorative work and Christmas gifts are not neglected, but stress is placed on mending, and on making garments and other articles of direct utility. In the kitchen, canning, preserving, the cooking of meats, and the making of wholesome puddings, bread, pies, and cakes are taught. Sanitation, diet, nursing, marketing, serving lunches, and household management come in for a share of attention. The girls give one-fourth of their time to this work, one-fourth to English, and the remaining half to the ordinary standard subjects. The shopwork is intensely practical. At a street fair held last autumn the boys were on hand with wagon boxes completely ironed, hay-racks, stock crates, farm gates, and a long list of articles in wood and in metal. Furniture and other domestic articles are not overlooked, but a distinct effort is made to gain the approbation of the practical farmer.

Instruction in agriculture is required by law to include practical work with soils, crops, fertilizers, drainage, farm machinery, farm buildings, breeds of live-stock, live-stock judging, animal diseases and remedies, production of milk and cream, testing of same, manufacture of butter and cheese, horticulture, gardening, and such other questions as have a direct relation to the business of farming. The department has a suite of rooms, including storage for seed corn and other products. A pleasing feature is an extensive, well-arranged, and growing collection of agricultural bulletins.

A tract of thirteen rich acres situated on the shore of a lake about half a mile from the central school has been set apart as a school farm. Last year \$319 was expended for tools, seeds, and labor. In corn-growing, much is made of ear tests. There are experimental plots of various grains, vegetables, and forage plants, including alfalfa. One local enthusiast has figured it all out that during the short two years of the present organization, the influence of the school and farm on dairying and corn-growing has brought several times as much ready money into the associated districts as the entire school has cost.

A winter short course has developed here, as well as elsewhere, into a valuable feature. It is held at the central school. There is no red tape. There is no age limit. Ability to profit is the requirement for entrance. The course opens after the fall plowing and corn-husking are done and closes before the rush of spring work comes on. The hours are from 10:00 A.M. to 3:00 P.M., giving time to do chores at home morning and evening. Each family or group of families furnishes its own transportation. Over a hundred motley, but eager, students are in attendance. Additional instructors are employed at this season, but all hands, from the superintendent down, take hold and help. The instructor and the girls enrolled in the teachers' training department give a good account of themselves. Instruction is given in English, farm arithmetic, and accounts. Agriculture, cooking, sewing, carpentry, blacksmithing, spelling, penmanship, and farm law are taught. Each student is assigned to the work most needed. It is not unusual to find an agricultural giant plying the trade of Vulcan at his ease one hour, while the next finds him perspiring over the sonorous page of a third reader. If any part of our school work demonstrates that the Minnesota high-school system has finally got down to business it is the winter short course now going in a hundred schools.

Agricultural extension is a chapter in itself. The state college of agriculture, including an able corps of institute workers, has taken the deepest interest in the success of the movement. The superintendent has organized series after series of evening schoolhouse meetings. The average attendance at fifty-four of the meetings held the first winter was forty-five; the average for this autumn was eighty-eight. Board members, the industrial teachers, successful farmers, and chance visitors have been drafted. Mr. A. D. Wilson, superintendent of farmers' institutes, has sent in speaker after speaker for farm visitation and evening meetings. Systematic farmers' institutes, a week in length, are held regularly each year. Corn contests and street shows have been held. The school has set tables for three hundred people at a time.

The school and its activities cost money. The school tax in the village is 24 mills. The annual sources of revenue for current

expense, omitting the expenditure for the rural schools and the grades of the village, may be set down:

1. Regular *state aid to each high school	\$1,750
2. Special *state agricultural aid	2,500
3. *State bonus of \$150 for each associating district (13)	1,950
4. A per capita share of income from state school fund (estimated)	800
5. *State award for the teachers' training school	750
6. Help in lectures and other forms from the agricul- tural college	500
7. Village contribution (fuel \$500) about	\$1,000
8. Voluntary tax on associated territory (2 $\frac{1}{4}$ mills)	2,000
Total	\$11,250

*The term "state" indicates a bonus paid directly from the state treasury by virtue of legislative enactment.

The management of so many varied interests requires judgment and activity. Citizens of Cokato have contributed time and thought and money; automobiles and livery teams have been tendered freely; farmers have taken hold of the enterprise; local bankers have advanced money until state grants and taxes were available; but it is not too much to say that the superintendent is the key to the situation.

Some of the advantages of the Minnesota plan as exemplified by Cokato may be named:

1. The problem of rural schools is solved, at least for this community. Teachers, texts, courses of study, and methods of instruction are brought under expert supervision.

2. A supply of rural teachers is established. These teachers, who have been trained in the central school, go back and forth familiarly and are in as close touch with the superintendent as are the grade teachers of the village.

3. Agricultural instruction is brought to the farmer's door. The organization of from one to half a dozen such schools in each county—no distant day-dream—is far ahead of a sparse system of schools, such as one for each congressional district.

4. The plan is economical. Present buildings are utilized and the ordinary high-school teachers are able to do the academic part of the work.

5. By combining the resources of town, county, and state, and by avoiding duplication, competent instructors may be employed.

6. Class education—and this is no trifling matter—is avoided.

7. The town school is improved by the attendance of country students, and country students are improved by mingling with town students.

8. A long step has been taken to solve the problems of rural life. The influence of a co-operative school will be exerted, not only in favor of greater productivity and of co-operation in marketing, but in favor of improved roads, speedy transportation, reasonable hours of work, and increased pay. The upshot of it all cannot fail to be more homes of thrift and contentment.

Cokato is a leader, but is not alone in the good work. Two dozen other Minnesota schools duplicate the departments and the work of Cokato, and four score more are hastening after. There is no hostility for the old, but our schools are after the new. Ten short years will see the Minnesota high school rebuilt, and when our schools have been reorganized we shall have a system that serves the people—a system that faces the future, not the past. In the meantime, friends of education need have no fear that the Minnesota high schools are receding from the national standard or that sound learning and higher education are in jeopardy, for a school that combines sport, work, and study is the best of all preparatory schools.

THE OPPORTUNITY OF THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

DAVID SNEDDEN

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Dr. Thorndike has shown,¹ on the basis of the figures contained in the annual reports of the National Bureau of Education, that in the United States public secondary schools which have only one or two teachers are in excess of all the others; while in high schools having fewer than four teachers are enrolled over one-third of all the secondary-school pupils of the country. In Massachusetts, approximately 40 per cent of the high schools have fewer than four teachers.

From the standpoint of the colleges, and of many speakers at our larger educational gatherings, these small high schools may seem rather poor, understaffed, and generally ineffective institutions; but, looked at as the principal cultural agencies in somewhat sparsely settled regions, usually agricultural, where a considerable percentage of high-grade men and women are born and reared, they assume a large importance.

Rarely are these schools without a few pupils preparing for college. The teachers are apt to be recent college graduates, as yet unable to interpret education except in terms of college courses still fresh in memory. The college, through its entrance requirements, indicates detailed and definite standards to be met. Hence, quite naturally, the work of the small undermanned secondary school is customarily one long struggle to bring a limited number of boys and girls to the point of getting into college with some degree of credit. The test thus imposed on the faculty of the school is concrete and easily comprehended by the community. Teachers are judged by the success of their pupils in meeting the requirements of higher institutions. None of the other standards and ideals of secondary education, so often discussed in

¹ *Educational Review*, Vol. XXXIII, p. 245.

general, and so seldom in specific, terms at educational and kindred gatherings, have much weight with the small high school. Its teachers are of sheer necessity followers, not originators; and they have their hands full in seeking to meet the very specifically formulated requirements imposed by the colleges.

Thus restricted in its scope, it is undoubtedly true that the small high school has largely failed to serve as effectively as is ideally possible community needs as represented in the large majority of its pupils, for whom a higher education is out of the question. Naturally, high-school teachers, as well as college critics and examiners, do not admit this. Somewhere in the past originated the belief that for any and all persons certain abstract studies, such as algebra, Latin, ancient history, physics, and the like, possess an exceptional value in unfolding the powers of the mind and in developing or imparting that elusive quality called culture; on this belief the accepted curriculum rests. These studies play an important part, of course, as tools in higher education as usually organized; but that, in the shape which they ordinarily take when presented as means of college preparation, they should be assumed to have other kinds of educational utility, is one of the mysteries of contemporary educational thinking. Probably an explanation is to be found in the disposition of many persons to reason according to the principle of *post hoc ergo propter hoc*. Young people who have had these studies succeed better, as a rule, in the world than those who have not, whether judged by standards of material success or of cultural development. But in fact the pupils who pass well in a secondary-school program of abstract studies are ordinarily a picked lot, in respect to both inheritance and environment. They are those for whom culture and prosperity are, in a degree at least, inevitable, no matter what the school program may be. The conviction, however, is slowly spreading that the traditional program of the small high school is, for those who do not reach college, a relatively futile affair when viewed from the standpoint of any one of the three possible aims of secondary education, namely: vocational efficiency, civic capacity, and personal culture. There is a growing demand, often inarticulate, in communities supporting such schools, but finding more

definite expression in circles where these problems can be systematically studied, that the artificial restrictions imposed on general secondary education be relaxed, and that such education be measurably readjusted so as to serve more acceptably the actual needs of the community.

The response to this demand is, even now, partially felt. At first hesitatingly, then whole-heartedly, important institutions of higher education have modified their standards. They do not aim to lower their requirements, as expressed in the general ability of entrants to do good college work; but they manifest a wholesome disposition to let the high schools do their work in their own way and to accept the results, provided only the graduates of these schools will surely justify themselves in their ability to do serious and effective higher study. We may now hope that the time is forever past when colleges could harass secondary schools by their varying insistence on special topics, texts, or time-tables in algebra, French, chemistry, and other traditional subjects. The period during which the colleges nursed the high schools was doubtless necessary; but apron strings have been cut and our great institutions of higher learning are opening a new era by reposing increased confidence in the management of secondary schools.

As a consequence a heavy responsibility now devolves upon the public high school. It must define its true aims—a thing it has never done—and must work out a pedagogy of means and methods, toward which general subject a not uncommon attitude even yet is that of the farmer who, after carefully inspecting and feeling of the dromedary in the circus, muttered, "There ain't no such animal." Those responsible for the administration of the small high school must needs give especial attention to a determination of what is meant by community needs, on the one hand, and the educational possibilities of different groups of children of secondary-school age, on the other.

The present is an era of opportunity for the small high school. Let it recognize its necessary limitations; let it explore its possible field; let it undertake to realize its unquestionably great possibilities.

For the sake of calling forth discussion, and as a means of indi-

cating his own growing convictions, the writer wishes to support the following theses relative to an effective functioning of the small high school. They are not designed as a basis of plans and programs of action for the present, but as fragmentary contributions toward a theory of secondary education, which may eventually become the source of such plans and programs.

1. The small high school must remain primarily a school of liberal, as contrasted with vocational, education. Effective vocational training in any field is practicable only under specially prepared teachers, special equipment, and specially arranged conditions. Attempts at genuine vocational education in the small high school, as commonly organized, whether in agricultural, industrial, commercial, or household-arts subjects, are foredoomed to failure unless in fully specialized departments. Otherwise the so-called vocational training which results is likely to be a sham and an imposition.

2. On the other hand, every small high school should maintain work in one or more lines of practical arts, but avowedly with reference to the possible contributions of the subject to the valid ends of liberal or general education. Manual training, household arts, agriculture, and such commercial studies as typewriting and elementary bookkeeping can be made valuable factors in liberal education; they will also make incidental contributions to vocational ideals. But it is important that neither the community nor the pupil be deceived into thinking of any of these subjects, when pursued a few hours each week, as developing genuine vocational skill and capacity.

3. The small high school must recognize that preparation for college is, for a small but important minority of its pupils, a necessary and valuable function; but it must equally recognize that for a majority of its pupils preparation for the realities of the cultural and civic life of the local community is a supremely important purpose. It must learn in addition that, even in view of the greatly modernized college admission requirements now being developed, the two aims are not to be realized through the same means and methods. In the high school the future college student should learn the use of certain tools which the boy not going to college will not need.

4. Especially must the small high school learn to serve, and in growing measure as standards of living improve, the needs of a very large class of boys and girls hardly yet recognized in American secondary education—those, namely, who will, and probably should, leave school at or near the age of sixteen, the age at which, through all the periods of civilization, the vast majority of young people have begun serious participation in the vocational occupations of life.

5. The small high school, and it is to be hoped the large also, must learn that in the liberal education of young persons two quite different methods of approach are required as between different subjects, and often for the several phases of the same subject. Naturally, the provinces for the two types of methods shade into each other and sharp distinctions are undesirable even though for purposes of description they may be temporarily drawn.

The first type embraces those methods of teaching, the largest outcome of which is appreciation. The satisfaction of natural or induced curiosity, the nurture of the native instincts toward unforced growth in feeling and intelligence—these purposes should control in this phase of instruction. A child hears a story or song, reads a book for pleasure, makes an excursion with a friend, attends a good play or moving-picture show, visits a picture gallery, listens to an illustrated lecture on a scientific subject, the net results of which contacts are new accessions of resources of intellect and feeling, with perhaps little gain, relatively, of ability to organize, express, and apply the knowledge and sentiment thus developed. For lack of a better term, let us call the ends and methods here illustrated those of appreciation.

The second aspect of method appears when the definite purpose of teaching is the development of power toward execution of some sort. The study of a foreign language should result in ability to use it; of mathematics and science in advanced stages, in the ability to organize and apply to further pursuits the knowledge thus obtained. Any extensive development of cultural or civic power (to say nothing of vocational) requires the strenuous and purposeful mastery of what may be called intellectual tools, methods, and materials. This mastery can be achieved, as a rule, only when the

learner is in a willing or co-operative attitude. The high school of today, by its methods, seems, in all subjects, to aim mainly at power in execution or application, but its methods are as yet not consciously pedagogical, with the result that it finds in its pupils an absence of interest and an indisposition toward self-help.

Of the two approaches here contrasted, the first deliberately invokes and sustains the relatively spontaneous learning capacities, and organizes means and methods toward that end; while the second utilizes processes of learning that are relatively artificial. The average textbook in science presupposes the second rather than the first method. In fact, but a small part of high-school education, as organized, is directed to what is here called learning for appreciation. The unorganized activities of English and American secondary schools are, on the other hand, full of such spontaneous elements, though these are often not uplifting. A very real pedagogic difficulty in organized secondary education yet exists in the imperfect adjustment or in the lack of adjustment of the two kinds of training.

The writer believes that in the introductory stages, at least, of literature, general science, social science, and practical arts, when these subjects are designed for students likely to leave school early, the controlling end should be deep and varied appreciation; whereas in vocational subjects, in English expression, and in the later stages of science and mathematics, the controlling purpose should be power in application or execution. Until the distinction of method here suggested is developed, it seems unlikely that the small high school can do much for culture and social development as ends of secondary education. It should not be forgotten that much of what we vaguely call culture springs from the first method, and, perhaps, from it only, but only when interest and self-active effort are enlisted.

6. The small high school must recognize that with respect to the means and methods of stimulating interest and appreciation it has a relatively wide field, whereas in the matter of subjects and phases of subjects calling for power in application and execution its limitations are pronounced and besetting. Lectures on pictures, musical recitals, moving-picture presentations, good libraries,

excursions, participation in civic activities, interpretations of science by talks and readings, access to some phase of practical arts by means of participation on the amateur's level—all these may prove rich and easily accessible sources of culture. But mastery of a foreign language, systematic study of literary selections, drill in the arts of vernacular expression, laboratory exercise in science work, and productive effort in some field of the practical arts all require specialization of teaching power such as the small high school can only to a limited degree afford. In power-producing studies, as contrasted with appreciation-favoring opportunities, the small high school must restrict its field to what it can do well.

What, then, is the minimum curriculum a small high school can have and fairly meet the above ends? The writer believes that the following most nearly serves these purposes:

FIRST AND SECOND YEARS

Non-College-Preparatory

1. English literature
2. English language
3. General science
4. Social science
5. Practical arts

College-Preparatory

6. English literature
7. English language
8. Selected from 3-5
9. Mathematics
10. Foreign language

THIRD AND FOURTH YEARS

11. } Selected from
12. } college-preparatory
13. } courses
14. }
15. Practical arts

16. English literature
17. English language
18. Science
19. Foreign language
20. History

This proposed curriculum for the small high school presents two programs of study. The first is designed for youths not seeking college preparation, but intending to terminate their general education during or at the close of the high-school course; while the second is planned to provide adequate preparation for college work.

But a further distinction is apparent. The first two years' work of the high school is organized primarily to minister to the needs of those who will probably end their general education at or about sixteen, but on the assumption that a portion of such

work will also prove valuable for those who are probably destined for college. On the other hand, the last two years of the curriculum give prominence to considerations of college preparation, with the understanding that for the student who continues in school without intending to enter college the college-preparatory studies are sufficiently valuable, and in the small high school constitute the most effective provision that can be made. An analysis of the curriculum into its constituent elements will make this general distinction clearer. It will be understood that the dogmatic and direct form of presentation is rendered necessary by the space limitations of this paper.

1. The two-year course in English literature should be, in content and method of presentation, such as intelligent persons, solicitous as to the establishment of good tastes and standards of judgment in general reading, and acquainted with the strong interests and the general learning capacities of young adolescents, would design for youths who will probably terminate their liberal school education at or about sixteen years of age.

We do not yet know in detail what such a course should contain, nor have we much available knowledge of the methods that would be appropriate in its presentation. In this matter, our college professors of English may be able at present to give us but little help; and it may be doubted whether even high-school teachers of the subject, as now organized, with their established prepossessions, can give satisfactory guidance.

It may well be doubted whether the so-called English classics should figure largely in this course. It would appear self-evident that it should contribute to marked elevation of taste in the reading of contemporary literary productions, as found in newspaper, magazine, and book form. It would appear to be folly to endeavor to secure at large expense of time and energy, and with uncertain results, abiding interests in fields into which the large majority of fairly well-educated people do not habitually enter.

Furthermore, it may be questioned whether in this course literature should be at all closely correlated with the study of oral and written expression in the vernacular. The writer believes that careful study would show that in most American high schools

today the intimate correlation of language study and literature, such as prevails in the general subject called English, results neither in power of literary appreciation nor in capacity for effective expression. The two purposes require such different pedagogic methods that it may be doubted whether the same teacher should, as is usually the case in high schools, teach both subjects. At any rate in English designed solely "for life," literature and the arts of expression should receive independent consideration.

2. Language study, in this program, should, as contrasted with literature, where the controlling end is appreciation, be designed mainly to give power in the arts of expression in English, and on a level appropriate and practicable for the large majority who are to have no college training. Here again, few if any precedents exist. The pedagogy of the problem has not been studied because the problem itself has not been clearly differentiated and formulated.

3. After literature and expression in English, no subject has a more appropriate place in a program of liberal education designed primarily for persons destined probably to enter upon practical life at sixteen than general science. This science cannot be psychology, or botany, or zoölogy, or physiology, or physics, or chemistry, or geology, or astronomy, or geography, but should consist of large units or topics from several or all of those subjects, and all presented from the standpoint of appreciation and insight, as contrasted with power to use. Little organized material for teaching purposes in this field is yet available, and progress will be slow until there is developed a vital pedagogy of secondary-school teaching. In general, the science subjects contemplated should aim to interpret the significant phases of the material environment of the youth, so far as his capacity normally permits; and this process should produce large appreciation, permanent interests, and a measure of insight.

4. No less indispensable to the liberal education of American youth than general science is social science, meaning thereby that appreciative understanding of the social environment which is essential, not only to citizenship, but to effective living. For this subject neither content nor method is yet available. A certain amount of civics is, of course, found in American high schools. Increasing

attention has, in recent years, been given to history, but the advocates of that study in the secondary school have, as yet, been unable to show us how it actually "functions" in any kind of civic or social efficiency. Perhaps it is not intended to do so, but the other purposes, whatever they are, should be defined and proved valuable; otherwise the subject is in danger of being relegated to the museum of discarded educational machinery.

But whether our leaders in history teaching will have it so or not, those who can detach themselves from educational traditions and who are accustomed to face the facts of youth and society know that a two-years course constructed of suitable units from civics, economics, ethics, and other constituents of social science, enriched with vital and pertinent contributions from history, both that which is made and that which is today making, can be devised. They know, furthermore, that such a course, planned for youths from fourteen to sixteen, can be made to yield valuable contributions to moral and civic capacity, as well as to provide a background for future vocational studies. Teachers for this work are not yet available; nor are manuals and textbooks; but given the right conception of the pedagogic need and method, these things will soon follow.

5. The small high school cannot be a vocational school in any true sense of that word, but this does not mean that it shall forego all attempts to keep its boys and girls in contact with the practical arts by which men and women must live and which are therefore, like the earth beneath, the sky above, and the social life all about, among the great realities of life. That is no liberal education which ignores the possibilities that adolescence presents, of an illuminating and inspiring contact with those realms of achievement wherein men control the material world to the uses of humanity. In this general subject, contact and participation on the amateur's level are the essential basal elements of method.

Under practical arts we may recognize four distinct departments—namely, agriculture, the industries, the commercial occupations, and the household arts. A small high school can, even when articulating its work closely with similar work in the upper grades of the elementary school, carry but one or two of these

divisions. In a rural community agricultural and household-arts training might well comprise all the practical-arts work.

The controlling aim in this field should not be direct vocational skill or even knowledge designed to be applied in specific callings, but rather the broad, appreciative insight and sympathetic contact which will result in high standards of utilization and a measure of vocational idealism. Units of work, each leading to visible and serviceable achievement, should be made available for the youthful amateur's contact with human vocations; and these should constitute ports of embarkation for excursions into fields of related art, history, economics, science, and mathematics. It will be observed that the non-college-preparatory program contains, in the first two years, no mathematics, it being assumed that the needful mathematical practice for those leaving school at sixteen can be obtained in conjunction with the practical-arts work.

6-10. During the first two years of the high-school curriculum, students desiring to prepare for college should take mathematics and a foreign language; and also the two English branches and one other subject from the non-preparatory program. The study of mathematics and the foreign language should be designed to give direct power in the use of these subjects as tools in college work. The teaching should be intensive, the standards high, and, in mathematics at least, acquaintance with the methods of using the subject as an instrument should be made concrete, perhaps along lines suggested by the Perry movement in England. But to students probably not going to college it should be made clear that high-school mathematics, as the subject is customarily presented, has probably little educational value in comparison with other subjects which should be available.

11-14. During the third and fourth years of the curriculum, the small school under consideration can well afford to give its chief consideration to the minority (perhaps by this time a majority) of its pupils who contemplate study beyond the high school. But, if equipment and other facilities permit, boys and girls not seeking college preparation should have opportunity to supplement a program made up of selected studies from the preparatory list, with practical-arts courses. Conceivably these might be made to

assume the character required to produce vocational efficiency, in which, by a part-time or other arrangement, half the student's time might be given to practical and productive work in the calling selected, and a portion of the remainder to related technical studies. But this could be accomplished only through special teachers and modified internal organization of the school.

16-20. Third- and fourth-year preparatory subjects should, in content and method of presentation, follow lines adjudged sound by college authorities as means of college preparation. The foreign language begun in the first year is here continued with a view to giving a genuine mastery of that subject; English, as a study of literature and of the arts of expression, is pursued intensively; while science and history are also so taught as to produce power in using these subjects as instrumentalities.

In this connection attention should be called to the preposterous attempts on the part of small high schools to teach two or more foreign languages. Seldom have such schools the means of teaching one at all adequately; but it is unbelievable that so many of them should palm off on the public so-called Latin, French, and German teaching which is not even a fair imitation of language teaching according to any adequate standard. Let the small high school never attempt more than one foreign language; let it teach that intensively through four years; let it permit no pupil to continue in the subject who has not real capacity for it; and, incidentally, let the school obtain as a teacher of this subject one who knows something about it—if a modern language, one who can understand and use it. Americans are hospitable to shams, and yield to self-delusion in education as in other matters; but in no other respect are we so much imposed upon as in the high-school teaching of foreign language.

The foregoing hypothetical organization of a high-school curriculum is presented with a view to eliciting discussion and constructive suggestion. It cannot be regarded as a program of action for the present time—it contains too many features which are yet ill defined and in need of experimental demonstration. The writer hopes that within the next few years considerable progress will be made in testing particular phases of this and similar plans.

Already, indeed, there are many enterprising and careful teachers who are seeking to reorganize special subjects. General science suited to the first and second high-school years—have we not already some foreshadowings of possible courses in this field? Here and there are English teachers who are feeling their way toward a fuller and richer utilization of the world's store of reading-matter as a means of developing genuine culture in the case of youths of fifteen or sixteen years of age. Even in the ill-defined field above called social science, we have examples of the teaching of civics, of local economics, of industrial history, and of ethics, a development of the historic sense, and a kindling of social ideals, which show what may eventually be done in a broad program of the wider civic or social education.

Can the small high school carry out the proposed program? It is certainly not more pretentious than many now followed. By a proper alternation of studies, two teachers should be able to present all the subjects, although, manifestly, these teachers will carry heavy loads. But on what other terms can we obtain an effective secondary education for the sparsely settled community? There are various needs to be met, of which preparation of a few students for college is not the most important. Let the small high school learn to define and meet these needs; let the makers of textbooks, manuals, and programs of secondary education realize the opportunities which are now offered to develop a more effective scheme of liberal education in the thousands of small schools in America.

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE ENGLISH-LITERATURE SECTION OF A HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY

PERCY H. BOYNTON
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The following with slight modifications is a list of books two sets of which have been acquired for the special use of Freshmen students in the University of Chicago, who are taking the survey course in English literature which precedes all the advanced courses.

The basic idea in formulating the list is that for each division pursuing the general introductory course in English literature there ought to be a special library on exhibit, either in the classroom or at some designated place in the college library. This collection should have in its favor two features: (1) It should come moderately near to representing the chief needs for collateral reading in connection with such a course. (2) It should serve as an eye-opener to students with reference to the cheapness and attractiveness of standard works which they might care to purchase for themselves.

It is not for a moment assumed that any student will read all of these books in connection with the course, but it is fair to suppose that the assembling of them as a group will lure the students on to reading which they might not otherwise attempt, and that it will begin their acquaintance, through the mere sight of the books, with works which they will subsequently read.

The list has been made up on the basis not solely of devising a theoretical model library, but also, in conjunction with this, of utilizing books in print in standard series at low prices. These are drawn almost exclusively from the following series:

Athenaeum Press Series—Ginn.
Camelot Series—Walter Scott.
Everyman's Library—Dutton.
Macmillan's Pocket Series—Macmillan.

Mermaid Series—Scribner.
 Muses' Library—Dutton.
 People's Library and the National Library—Cassell.
 Riverside reprints—Houghton Mifflin.
 Standard English Classics—Ginn.
 Temple Classics—Dent.

Although the selection was made without reference to college-entrance requirements, it happened that it practically included that list and the four exceptions have been added. The five titles falling under American Literature, namely, from Franklin, Irving, Parkman, Poe, and Washington-Webster, can, of course, easily be secured from any one of the special college-entrance series. It is assumed that no advice is needed with reference to Shakespeare.

It should be pointed out that the list of novels is made up under the limitations already mentioned, and further with the purpose not so much of offering an ideal short list of novels, as of offering a list of novels the reading of which would be particularly valuable in a survey course in English literature on account of the light which they throw on the social and literary backgrounds of the various periods with which they deal. This will account for the presence of some apparent oddities and for otherwise notable exceptions from novel lists.

In all cases, the price mark following is the cost of one volume. In cases, therefore, where there are more than one volume under any given title, the price should be multiplied by the number of volumes. It is interesting to note that these standard works can be secured at an average cost of about \$.37 per volume. In every case the bindings are substantial and the print clear.

The list is presented in two parts.

ESSAYS, POETRY, DRAMA, ETC.

- Addison and Steele. **Sir Roger de Coverley Papers* (Riverside), \$.40.
Spectator, The (Everyman's), 4 vols., \$.35.
Essays and Tales (Cassell-National), \$.25.
 Arnold. **Poems* (Everyman's), \$.35.
 **Poems* (Temple), \$.45.
 Essays (Everyman's), \$.35.

* See College-Entrance Requirements.

- Bacon. *Advancement of Learning* (Cassell-National), \$0.25.
Essays (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Essays (Temple), \$0.45.
- Beowulf* (Riverside), \$0.25.
- Blake. *Poems* (Muses' Library), \$0.40.
- Boswell. *Life of Dr. Johnson* (Temple), 6 vols., \$0.45.
Life of Dr. Johnson (Everyman's), 2 vols., \$0.35.
- Browning, E. B. *Selections* (Ginn's Standard Eng. Class.), \$0.30.
Selections (Macmillan's Pocket ed.), \$0.25.
- Browning. **Shorter Poems* (Macmillan's Pocket ed.), \$0.25.
- Burke. *American Speeches and Letters* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Speech on Conciliation with the Colonies (Riverside), \$0.25.
Speeches on America (Temple), \$0.45.
- Bunyan. **Pilgrim's Progress* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
**Pilgrim's Progress* (Temple), \$0.45.
- Burns. *Poems* (Cassell-National), \$0.25.
Selections (Athenaeum), \$0.70.
- Byron. **Poetical Works* (Everyman's), 3 vols., \$0.35.
- Carlyle. **Essays on Burns and Scott* (Cassell-National), \$0.25.
French Revolution (Temple), 3 vols., \$0.45.
Sartor Resartus (Temple), \$0.45.
Sartor Resartus and Heroes and Hero Worship (Everyman's), \$0.35.
- Chaucer. *Canterbury Tales* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Prologue and Knight's Tale (Riverside), \$0.40.
- Coleridge. **Selections* (Muses' Library), \$0.40.
- Defoe. *Journal of the Plague Year* (Cassell-People's), \$0.25.
Journal of the Plague Year (Everyman's), \$0.35.
- De Quincey. *Confessions of an English Opium Eater* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Confessions of an English Opium Eater (Temple), \$0.45.
**Joan of Arc and English Mail* (Riverside), \$0.25.
Reminiscences of the Lake Poets (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Selections (Athenaeum), \$0.90.
- Dryden. *Palamon and Arcite* (Riverside), \$0.25.
Elizabethan Lyrics (Athenaeum), \$0.75.
Everyman and Other Miracle Plays (Everyman's), \$0.35.
- Everyman, Early Plays* (Riverside), \$0.40.
- Goldsmith. *Citizen of the World* (Temple), 2 vols., \$0.45.
Life of Goldsmith, Irving (Riverside), \$0.40.
**Poems* (Temple), \$0.45.
**Poems and Plays* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
**Plays* (Cassell-National), \$0.25.
- Gray. *Selections* (Athenaeum), \$0.60.

* See College-Entrance Requirements.

- Guest, Lady. *Mabinogion* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 Hazlitt. *Essays* (Camelot), \$0.35.
Holy Grail, High History of (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Holy Grail, High History of (Temple), 2 vols., \$0.45.
 Johnson. *Essays* (Camelot), \$0.35.
 Keats. *Poems* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 Lamb. **Essays of Elia* (Cassell-People's), \$0.25.
 Essays of Elia (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 Last Essays of Elia (Temple), \$0.45.
 Macaulay. **Critical and Historical Essays* (Temple), 5 vols., \$0.45.
 Essays (Everyman's), 2 vols., \$0.35.
 Lays of Ancient Rome (Riverside), \$0.25.
 Miscellaneous Essays and Lays of Ancient Rome (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 Malory. *Merlin and Sir Balin* (Riverside), \$0.25.
 King Arthur Stories (Riverside), \$0.40.
 Selections from Morte D'Arthur (Athenaeum), \$0.80.
 Le Morte D'Arthur (Everyman's), 2 vols., \$0.35.
 Milton. **Poems* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 Paradise Lost (Temple), \$0.45.
Minor Elizabethan Drama (Everyman's), 2 vols., \$0.35.
 Morris. *Early Romances* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 Newman. *Selections* (Henry Holt & Co. publication).
Old English Ballads (Athenaeum), \$0.80.
 Palgrave. *Golden Treasury* (Temple), \$0.45.
 Golden Treasury (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 Percy. *Reliques* (Everyman's), 2 vols., \$0.35.
 Pope. *Essay on Man* (Cassell-National), \$0.25.
 Rape of the Lock, Essay on Man (Riverside), \$0.25.
Pre-Shakespearian Drama, Specimens of (Athenaeum), 2 vols., \$1.25.
 Ruskin. *Crown of Wild Olives and Cestus of Aglaia* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 King of the Golden River (Riverside), \$0.25.
 Selections (Riverside), \$0.50.
 Sesame and Lilies (Riverside), \$0.25.
 Sesame and Lilies (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 Scott. **Lady of the Lake* (Camelot), \$0.35.
Seventeenth-Century Lyrics (Athenaeum), \$0.75.
 Shelley. *Poetical Works* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 Sheridan. *Plays* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 The Rivals and The School for Scandal (Cassell-National), \$0.25.
 Spenser. **The Fairie Queen* (Everyman's), 2 vols., \$0.35.
 The Fairie Queen (Riverside), Book I, \$0.40.
 Swift. *Battle of the Books* (Cassell-National), \$0.25.

* See College-Entrance Requirements.

- Swift. *Gulliver's Voyage to Lilliput* (Riverside), \$0.40.
Gulliver's Travels (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Prose Writings (Camelot), \$0.35.
Tale of a Tub (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Tennyson. **Poems* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Walton. *The Compleat Angler* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
The Compleat Angler (Cassell-National), \$0.25.
Wordsworth. *Poems* (Cassell-National), \$0.25.
Longer Poems (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Shorter Poems (Everyman's), \$0.35.

FICTION

- Austen. *Pride and Prejudice* (Temple), 2 vols., \$0.45.
Northanger Abbey (Temple), \$0.45.
Pride and Prejudice (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Northanger Abbey and Persuasion (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Defoe. *Memoirs of a Cavalier* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Robinson Crusoe (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Robinson Crusoe (Riverside), \$0.60.
Dickens. *Barnaby Rudge* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Barnaby Rudge (Cassell-People's), \$0.25.
**David Copperfield* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Little Dorrit (Everyman's), \$0.35.
**Tale of Two Cities* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Eliot. *Felix Holt* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
**Silas Marner* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Gaskell. **Cranford* (Cassell-People's), \$0.25.
**Cranford* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Goldsmith. **The Vicar of Wakefield* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
**The Vicar of Wakefield* (Riverside), \$0.40.
Hughes. *Tom Brown's Schooldays* (Cassell-People's), \$0.25.
Tom Brown's Schooldays (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Kingsley. *Westward Ho!* (Cassell-People's), \$0.25.
Westward Ho! (Everyman's), \$0.25.
Lytton. *The Last of the Barons* (Cassell-People's), \$0.25.
The Last of the Barons (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Reade. *The Cloister and the Hearth* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
The Cloister and the Hearth (Cassell-People's), \$0.25.
Peg Woffington (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Scott. *Fortunes of Nigel* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
Fortunes of Nigel (Temple), \$0.45.
**Ivanhoe* (Everyman's), \$0.35.

* See College-Entrance Requirements.

- Scott. **Ivanhoe* (Temple), \$0.45.
 Kenilworth (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 Kenilworth (Temple), \$0.45.
 **Quentin Durward* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 Woodstock (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 Woodstock (Temple), \$0.45.
- Swift. *Gulliver's Travels* (Temple), \$0.45.
- Thackeray. **Henry Esmond* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 **Henry Esmond* (Temple), 2 vols., \$0.45.
 Pendennis (Everyman's), 2 vols., \$0.35.
 Vanity Fair (Everyman's), \$0.35.
- Trollope. *Barchester Towers* (Everyman's), \$0.35.
 Barchester Towers (Cassell-People's), \$0.25.
 The Warden (Everyman's), \$0.35.

* See College-Entrance Requirements.

DISCUSSION

SCHOOL ESSAYS AND YELLOWBACKS

Germany is a magnificent machine. A German is peculiarly adapted, both in his virtues and by what an American would consider his weaknesses, to become a cog in the mechanism, a private in the great army of which only certain divisions are uniformed. It has been the writer's privilege to study at first hand one phase of German society—the school—and he has found that her docile, polite, somewhat mechanically industrious youths, bowing their backs beneath an iron discipline and a uniform and sternly a priori method of instruction, offer a somewhat different problem from young Americans. There is no question that Prussian schoolmasters teach their pupils a great deal more positive fact than American children learn. The weakness of the Prussian system is its lack of mobility. Approved new discoveries in method are not easily accommodated, individual peculiarities in children receive little attention. Ever and again a voice is raised in protest and appeal for more flexibility, more care for natural development. A very loud and insistent cry for reform in the treatment of their native language is coming just now from two Hamburg teachers, whose book deserves attention across the water, for the same problems meet teachers of English in America.¹

Germany has arisen in the last few months in a mighty effort to check the inroads of the "yellow" literature that is ruining her youth. A case of robbing Peter to pay Paul, say our paradoxical agitators from Hamburg; for nothing can be "yellower" than the essays your schoolmasters are teaching your children to write. There is no difference at bottom between *The Horned Siegfried* and *Texas Jack*; the characteristic fault of the dime-novelist is to attack subjects of which he knows nothing—exactly as the boy who has barely emerged from the nursery is ordered to sit in judgment on the best form of government for a state; and the writer of penny dreadfuls, like the child in the schoolroom, is making the terrible blunder of trying to pay his debts with sonorous words. If we overlook the somewhat indelicate thrust at Siegfried, which the authors make no effort to follow up, we must allow that there is more than a grain of truth in their main assertion. It would be easy to duplicate from American sources a model "reproduction" of Goethe's "Erlkönig" which they furnish us from a standard German textbook, and which shows as much spontaneity and simplicity as the well-known Boston version of "Little drops of water." Why blur and maim these universal masterpieces by trying to reproduce them, in any case? Can the discipline, if this sort of discipline be necessary, not be secured from some other source? The writer confesses

¹ *Unser Schulaufsatz ein verkappter Schundliterat.* Von ADOLF JENSEN und WILHELM LAMZUS. Hamburg: Alfred Janssen, 1910.

that he has lost all love for certain gems of English literature which, like a delicate watch, he got apart and has never been able to put together just right since.

Our reformers have no place at all for such work in the scheme which they furnish for the full twelve-year school course. The child suffers more than he profits, they contend, from this sort of imitation. If he must have models set before him, let him try to write first and then correct his efforts with their help; do not cramp and chill his creative instinct by allowing him only to dilute what someone else has said.

As for themes in general, let him write from his own experience or his own fancy. It is neither necessary nor possible to think another's thoughts after him. What another has said may suggest thoughts to us; but if our writing has profit for us or others it is because we are creators—the little child at the school desk just as truly as those of us who are older. It is not true that we must acquire a certain mastery of language before we become literary creators. There is no man under fifty who is not learning more of his native language every day; and there are ten-year-old children in every school who now and then evolve a masterpiece.

It is only too true, alas! that the contributions of the smaller children are likely to show more merit than the painful grindings of their reluctant elders in the upper classes. There is one reason for this state of affairs which it would be the easiest matter in the world to remove. The little children are given subjects which interest them and which they are competent to handle: but although Browning wrote about the piper and the rats, and Goethe sang of the prickly rose, the older children must chop up Browning's poems, and rummage among the fragments of his theology, or explain in what sense *Iphigenie* may be said to be a genuinely German drama. Adults do not, or should not, leave the realities. Forcing the children away from what they like and understand is no preparation for life.

To return to the Hamburg reformers and their argument. After showing the similarity between the essays which the present school program demands and the cheap fiction which the children are not allowed to read, they establish by comparison that many school children write enormously better than their textbooks—though they generally lose the faculty before they leave school; and lastly, from a study of the children's efforts themselves, they arrive at a plan for the future. This last process may seem like reasoning in a circle, but nothing was ever less so. Education can be only a ripening, a development of what is within. A process that makes the child what he was not is inevitably an injurious process.

A detailed discussion of their examination is impossible here. Their plan is an adequate reflex of their investigation, and may be given rapidly as:

First year.—The child narrates his own experiences, orally of course.

Second year.—The same. Drawing used to illustrate the narrative. Attempts at original stories.

Third year.—The same. Written essays on similar themes. Classic children's stories used as models.

Fourth year.—The same. Attempts at characterization. Observation of animals. (Avoid generalization. Discuss particular animals and particular happenings.)

Fifth year.—The same. Accounts of the sayings and doings of smaller children. Original stories. Animal fables, encouraged by classical models. Invention of new Münchhausen experiences. Animals and plants tell their lives and thoughts. The child makes his own continuations of popular children's stories. Natural history. Accounts of physical experiments which the child has taken part in. History stories retold. Geography treated in the same manner, with descriptions of the country which the pupil is familiar with. Chronology, the simplest form of logic, observed in writing narratives.

Sixth year.—Transition to the observation essay. Imaginative essays in the form of dialogue. Stories. Personifications of natural objects. Stories of child life, with attempts at psychological development. Original stories on the model of stories given the pupil. Continuations, as before. Scientific subjects, as before. Logic, spatial as well as temporal.

Seventh and eighth years.—Experience and observation essays as before, growing, of course, more intensive. Imaginative essays as before, with original dramas involving three characters. Stories continued from one class period to another. Scientific essays. Logical essays which have their origin in the pupil's experience. Suggested subjects: an argument between two boys (or girls); thoughts at a funeral; thoughts in a cemetery; "Thoughts When I See the Stars"; "What I Think When I See an Old Woman."

Ninth to twelfth years.—Experience and observation essays which are exact transcriptions of reality; other essays founded on fact but departing from it, leading to a perception of the difference between real and poetical truth. Personal essay, in the form of a journal. Letters to a friend. Memories of childhood. Imaginative essays as before. Attempts at ballad and lyric poetry, historical novelettes, dramas, with special attention to characterization. Study of classical models. Class correction of essays written by younger pupils and of bits of bad writing from other sources. Accounts of exciting moments in plays which have been seen (never in those which have been only read). Essays on pictures, statues, etc., which must not be simple descriptions. Attempts to note the impressions and emotions which come from hearing music. Beautiful houses. Styles of architecture. Churches. Monuments. Scientific essays based on personal observation. Reports of lectures, journeys, etc. Class meetings. Discussion of the questions which arise in student life. Poetical and musical evenings. Publication of a school paper. Logical essays based on questions from the pupils' daily life. Suggested themes: the psychology of lying, of gossip; debts; broken promises; courage and cowardice; death; dreams.

The striking feature of this program, especially when compared with

Prussian courses of study, is the new relation to the classical models. There is no apparent desire to minimize the attention paid to good books, to lessen the pupil's amount of reading, but his essays are not to be mere copies of what he reads. As the author phrases it: "The work does not start from the classical form and arrangement, but is an attempt to lead up to it."

We are assured in this book that the German children do not write as well as they did a hundred years ago, when they were not tormented with a "method" at all. We are also informed that the writers themselves have suffered in style from their years of "discipline" as public-school pupils, and our sympathy with their effort is increased by the information that the Prussian schools are to blame that we have found their book so hard to read. But its faults are faults of style and arrangement: the fundamental idea is a sound one. Even German children must grow from within; and American teachers of English who imagine that American children can develop an English style by slavish imitation of a model, which can no more be incorporated into their being than your rainbow can be mine, are woefully mistaken.

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DEBATING IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

In his discussion of my article, "Debating in the High School," published in the October *School Review*, Mr. E. C. Hartwell seems to have misunderstood altogether the purpose of the writer. Mr. Hartwell concludes his discussion by saying: "The defects inevitable to any school activity should not blind one to its undeniable merits." The article was written with full appreciation of the "undeniable merits" of high-school debating and with the desire that they might prevail. It proceeds, however, upon the assumption that the defects are not inevitable and suggests certain lines of reform. Similar criticisms by writers from different parts of the country justify the belief that, in certain important respects, there is a widespread need of reform in interscholastic debating.

For instance, in the same issue of the *School Review* containing the article under discussion, Mr. A. Monroe Stowe, of the Kansas State Normal College, makes exactly similar charges against school debates and offers similar suggestions for their improvement. To quote the opening of his article:

While debating is not one of the subjects of the curriculum of many of our secondary schools, few of these schools are without one or more debating societies. Those who have come in contact with this phase of secondary-school work appreciate the value of the training gained through debate, but they also recognize some of the harmful tendencies in our present-day practice. It is the purpose of this paper to indicate a few of these evils and to suggest some changes in our procedure which will counteract these harmful tendencies.

The tendencies just suggested may be traced to a mistaken idea of the function or aim of debate. In life the aim of debate is to lead others to act or think as we feel they

ought to act or think. In our school debates the aim most frequently is to gain the decision of the judges. In life we have little respect for the person who is not sincere in his effort to convince us, who really does not believe in the course of action he would have us take. In our school debates it is not uncommon for debaters to argue against their convictions. In life, logic, voice, gesture, and personality are important means which we use in our endeavors to accomplish the aim of debate. In our school debates these means become ends in themselves, points to be noted and scored by judges to be used in determining their artificial decision. In life we may see the light during debate and capitulate. In school debating the student who becomes convinced that he does not believe in his side is urged to continue in his preparation for what may justly be called an intellectual prize-fight.

In his outline of the reform of debating in the Kansas State Normal College, Mr. Stowe shows that the chief aims are to have the debaters argue on questions of personal interest, the club even going so far as to amend its constitution, so that "only questions of vital interest to Kansas and to Kansans could be investigated, discussed, and debated"; to have debaters argue only in accordance with their personal convictions after due investigation; and to have judgment rendered, not by three "honorable judges," but by a two-thirds vote of the club itself.

In a letter to the *Nation*, May 7, 1908, Mr. William T. Foster sets forth similar charges against interscholastic debating, as follows:

In view of the opposition to intercollegiate athletics, on the ground that they seriously conflict with the primary purposes of higher education, it might be supposed that college authorities would welcome debating without question as the one form of intercollegiate rivalry contributing directly and highly to the intellectual interests of the college. On the contrary, it is said that debates, as they are now conducted, "impress the hearer with a waning sense of reality," because they are too formal, too rigid in their rules, artificial in their aims, in short, quite unlike the kind of contests in which students will find themselves engaged in the life beyond commencement. One result of this formalism is said to be a noticeable lack of sincerity and earnestness on the part of the speakers. Then again the question for debate is often so cleverly phrased, so vague and so complicated, that the time which should be spent on vital issues is wasted on quibbling over the meaning of terms. The petty and academic discussion which results seems more like a controversy of the Middle Ages than an attempt to get at the truth of a contemporary practical problem. Still further to preclude the possibility of real debating are the memorized speeches which render impossible that effective adaptation to opposing speakers, that running rebuttal, that one feature which distinguishes the real debater from the elocutionist. And when after an hour or two of such lifeless discussion, a team of undergraduates arrives with remarkable ease at sweeping conclusions, and proves "beyond the shadow of a doubt" a proposition which is still puzzling statesmen, the whole affair seems to some people little short of ridiculous.

In this same letter Mr. Foster dwells at length upon the evils of the practice by which some debaters are forced to speak against their convictions, and concludes his letter thus:

Anyone who cares more for the real good of the work than for the formalism and the verdicts of judges will not find it necessary to encourage young men, in an institution which stands above all for the pursuit of truth, to speak against their convictions. Institutions which have honest and intelligent regard for the essentials of debating, and are unhampered by the notion that the non-essentials must forever conform to tradition, will make all their studies aid in the development of able debaters, will have no special interest in the preparation for a particular contest, and no concern with the charges against "unreal" debating.

It is true that Mr. Foster is speaking of college students; but, if these faults are condemned in students of mature years, should they not all the more be checked in the case of high-school pupils?

Mr. Foster includes also among the defects of interscholastic debating the use of the purposely vague question. To do away with this evil he recommends the triangular system of debates now generally adopted by the larger colleges, and even goes so far as to urge an exchange of briefs between opposing teams. Now had Mr. Hartwell applied to this point concerning vague questions, made in the article he criticizes, that strict interpretation of language he so highly recommends for young debaters, he would not have fallen under such misapprehension as he seems to have done. For it is strict interpretation for which the writer asks, interpretation so strict as to shut out any possibility of quibbling, definition so accurate as to make certain that both sides have the same understanding of the question for debate. Again Mr. Hartwell labors under misapprehension when he represents the writer as objecting to the discussion of public questions. The objection was to deep and complicated questions, not clearly related to the life of the pupils. A public question may be simple enough, a local question too complicated, to be handled by high-school pupils. Nor does Mr. Hartwell put the case quite fairly when he says that such academic questions as "Could Brutus have saved the republic?" "Was the execution of Charles I justifiable?" were offered as substitutes for formal debates. The article expressly cites these as types of questions arising in the course of regular class work and promoting off-hand, spontaneous debate, while an entirely different list of questions is suggested as of vital interest in more formal debates. As for Mr. Hartwell's fear that the supply of local questions may give out, it is difficult to perceive why it should be exhausted any more than the supply of public questions, unless, perchance, a certain locality should stand still, while the remainder of the world moves.

Upon another point, too, Mr. Hartwell fails to place upon the language of the article the strict construction which he extols as training for his young debaters, when he contends that his debaters have not had their morals undermined by the practices of debating. The article speaks of the formation of habits of insincere speech as an immoral tendency to be resisted. But surely to speak of a practice as having an immoral tendency is a very different thing from saying that such a practice "has sapped the moral fiber of our pupils." Moreover, it is Mr. Hartwell, not the writer of the article, who speaks of

debating as a "pernicious influence." And when it is said that debating contests are liable to abuse, is that equivalent to saying that interscholastic debating is "literally cankered with corrupt and corroding influences"?

Finally, had Mr. Hartwell interpreted accurately the criticism made in the article of the coach's part in high-school debating, he would have found that objection was made, not necessarily to coaching itself, but to coaching as it is too frequently abused in high-school debates. Mr. Hartwell asks the question whether "any further criticism has been passed than with equal truth must be given to the teacher and the text who first guide the boy's unwilling feet into the labyrinth of literature." The answer is an emphatic affirmative. For the article recommends such supervision and guidance by the debating coach as a teacher gives his class. But objection is made to coaching which would be equivalent to the writing of a pupil's compositions by his English teacher, or the working out step by step of a pupil's "original" in geometry by his mathematics teacher, followed by presentation of these results as the bona-fide work of the pupils.

That the overstepping of legitimate bounds in the coaching of debates is no infrequent evil is indicated by the following extracts from articles or speeches recently published. In the *Century* for October, 1911, Mr. Rollo L. Lyman, associate professor of rhetoric and oratory in the University of Wisconsin, has this to say about coaches:

A third form of dishonesty sometimes arises. Coaches too frequently are far more responsible for the argument presented than are the debaters themselves. One debating coach had made a special study of "trades-unions" for ten years. He began in his high-school debates, followed it out in his college contests, and finally, taking charge of a college team, gave them three carefully prepared speeches to memorize. Thus his students received none of the value which comes of working up a case. They were parrots, nothing more. For this evil there are two possible remedies. Many colleges, among them Stanford, the University of California, and Swarthmore, rightly throw the burden of preparation entirely upon their debaters, doing away with all coaching, and trusting to the honor of their opponents to do likewise. Still better is reducing the time of preparation from three months to six weeks. Stanford and California pursue this method in their annual "Carnot" debates, which are models of the best debating in the country. The actual debating deteriorates under shorter preparation, but the exercise becomes far less academic, and more nearly like the occasions of everyday life. The debates under this system are contests not of voluminous research, but of individual constructive thinking. Above all, this plan places the men upon their own responsibility, and as far as possible eliminates opportunities for dishonesty.

Similarly, in the *Educational Review* for December, 1911, Mr. Charles Sears Baldwin, after much praise of debating, observes:

But there is a real danger—the coach. The very keenness of competition which has raised debating has in some cases threatened to wreck it. Very generally college debating committees employ an expert, whether from the faculty or from outside, to train their intercollegiate teams. In itself this brings no danger. The danger arises when the coach goes beyond criticism into making the case himself; it grows as he

consciously or unconsciously tries to make the debaters his spokesmen; it is at its worst when he is permitted to choose men to act his play. Then instead of a battle of students we may have a battle of coaches. That this insidious sort of professionalism not only degrades debating but clogs it ought to be evident now to East and West alike. Speakers who in contests within the college had shown themselves strong and ready enough to win the coveted places have on the intercollegiate platform been neither strong nor ready; have been, on the contrary, laborious and slow like David in the armor of Saul. The coach's case is of course better than anything they could devise—for him, but not for them. Not only can no man debate another man's case well, but, if he could, he should not. Else college debating will soon be paralyzed. Its main reason for being, its fundamental value in college life, is that it trains men to gain their own insight and impress their own grasp.

Although these cases are drawn from college life, the reasoning holds good for high-school pupils as well. Evidence is not lacking, however, as to similar abuses in coaching for high-school debates. A Sioux City, Iowa, newspaper gives the following report of a speech recently made before an Iowa teachers' convention:

"Interscholastic debates stir up enthusiasm, but they are absolute farces." W. H. Reno, of the high school at Elkader, and coach of his debating team, thus classified all public debates in a talk before the Iowa Teachers' Association:

"The trouble is that we do not debate vital subjects," said Mr. Reno. "When the pupils get upon a platform to debate a subject which their minds cannot grasp and on which their arguments are arranged in conclusive order, they are false to themselves and false to the public. If anybody had sense or half sense they would know that the pupils did not arrange their arguments, but that it was the work of the coach."

In connection with this, it is interesting to note that the debaters whom Mr. Hartwell especially commends for their originality of thought belong to Iowa high schools.

Now when in Maine and in Kansas, in New York and in Iowa and in Wisconsin, we find such perfect concurrence of opinion as to the existing evils of interscholastic debating and the remedies therefor, is it not time, despite the happy experience of Mr. Hartwell, with his two score or more of debates, that some general reform of interscholastic debating be undertaken? Certainly the undeniable merits of high-school debating should neither blind us to its manifest dangers, nor arrest attempts to remedy its defects.

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A CORRECTION

Superintendent Stacey, of Abilene, Kansas, informs me that the control of the schools in the second-class cities of Kansas which are under the commission form of government has not been placed in the hands of one of the commissioners, as was stated in my note in the December *School Review*. The plan was proposed, but was not adopted.

FRANK A. MANNY

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BOOK REVIEWS

A Cyclopaedia of Education. Edited by PAUL MONROE. New York: Macmillan, 1911. Vol. I, pp. xiii+654; Vol. II, pp. xi+726. \$5 a volume.

The first two volumes of the *Cyclopaedia of Education* are an admirable beginning of what may fairly be regarded as the most important single contribution to educational literature which has recently appeared in America. The problems involved in the selection of editors and contributors, in the analysis of the field in order to determine what should be included and in what proportion, and withal the bringing of the whole to a successful issue, are so great that one may well regard seeming defects with indulgence. Defects there undoubtedly are, but they are such defects as are inevitable in any undertaking of this sort, which requires the co-operation of many minds and attention to almost an infinity of details.

The ideal of the work is completeness of scope rather than of treatment. "Every aspect of education as an art and as a science" is treated. "The aim is to present authentic information," rather than "matters of opinion." A careful inspection of the various articles will reveal practically no departure from this plan. In all debatable questions both sides are fairly stated, with references for further reading. No user of the cyclopaedia can accuse it of propagating the doctrines of any special school of thought.

On the side of the philosophy and science of education the first two volumes contain many well-balanced articles, among which we may mention those on acquired characteristics, analysis and synthesis, apperception, conception, accommodation, adaptation, adjustment (serving to give a needed balance to current discussions of the meaning and aim of education), formal discipline, the culture-epoch theory, development, environment and organism, effort, experiment in education, eugenics, ethics and education, evolution and educational theory, form and content. An article of some length outlines the theory of education, and another gives a useful account of the development of education as a university subject in Europe and in America. Valuable articles on education and educational associations in different countries may also be mentioned in this connection.

The history of education is fully treated. The various articles supply concise information on almost every conceivable topic. Few will detect any omissions in the field of educational biography. The educational institutions, public and private, of all countries are well described. This is accomplished in part by special articles on the various higher schools, colleges, and universities, and in part by the separate treatment of the educational systems of various states and countries. Nowhere do we find, for instance, a more convenient summary of the history and present status of education in England than in the twenty-four page article written by a specialist of the United States Bureau of Education. The treatment of the history and status of the state school systems of the United States, given in articles upon the separate states, promises to be of much value to the student of American education. The articles on the higher institutions give in nearly every case concise statements as to endowments, income, equipment, size of student body, faculties, etc.

The field of educational methods, both general and special, is covered by a large number of brief, pointed articles on such subjects as aim, application, the developmental method, the direct method, the conversational method, the dynamogenic method, current events, condensation of experience, cramming, the Batavia system, etc.

The field of collegiate education is well analyzed and suggestively treated: the length of the college course, college administrative bodies, the geographical distribution of colleges and students, the distribution of college graduates in professions, and the problems of college teaching, of oversupply of colleges, and of the small college, all receive attention.

The specialist as well as the general reader will find useful a series of articles dealing with various aspects of administration and supervision, on such topics as educational commissions, common law in English education, district systems, city school administration, college examination and certification boards, college-entrance requirements, the history of examination systems, and the consolidation of schools.

The student of school hygiene may find, even in these first two volumes, a goodly amount of information on subjects in his field: for example, the effects of alcohol, cleanliness in the schoolroom, the clothing of school children, various school diseases, contagious diseases, the hygiene of school subjects, such as arithmetic and drawing, the hygiene of examinations, the hygiene of the eye and of the ear, the food and feeding of school children, desks and seats. School architecture is treated in a general article and in a number of special articles on fire protection, floor space per pupil, etc. There is also an article dealing with various general aspects of athletics, and a number of special articles on such subjects as amateurism, baseball, cricket, basket-ball, etc.

The various traditional subjects of the curricula of the elementary and higher schools are treated both historically and as to current status and methods. There are articles on such topics as arithmetic, algebra, astronomy, botany, and chemistry, and also a series of brief articles dealing with many phases of mathematics, such as addition, division, calculus, counting, equations, fractions, complex numbers.

Mention should also be made of a series on art, covering about twenty-four pages and taking up the general educational aspects of art—its place in the schools and the methods of teaching it—as well as art schools. There is an extended and valuable article on the drama and education and one on festivals.

Industrial and vocational education promises to receive full attention, comprehensive treatments of agricultural education, the apprenticeship system, and education in forestry, for example, appearing in these volumes.

A series of articles dealing with various aspects of the education of defectives, including the blind, the deaf, the blind and deaf, crippled, feeble-minded, and backward children, will be of general interest.

General psychology and philosophy, both as separate subjects and in their relations to education, quite properly receive liberal treatment, chiefly, however, in the form of brief articles on such topics as aesthetics, association, attention, diffusion, dualism, duration, emotions, eye-mindedness, fatigue, and, in abnormal psychology, amnesia, aphasia, convulsions, dreams, epilepsy, fixed ideas.

In concluding this survey of the contents of the first two volumes, the reviewer wishes to call especial attention to a series of articles which form an important contribution to the literature on childhood. Under the heads of child psychology, child study, child labor, the conservation and protection of childhood, legislation in the

interest of children, the criminality of children, adolescence, etc., is given in convenient form material collected from widely scattered sources.

The articles mentioned only serve to suggest the wealth of material made accessible by this work. It would not be possible to do justice to the content of any of them in a review. It is sufficient to say that they are in the main very clearly written and easy to read. Illustrations, plates, tables, and charts accompany the text. The bibliographies seem to be as full as is desirable, and are well selected.

IRVING KING

THE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English. Adapted by H. W. FOWLER and F. G. FOWLER (authors of *The King's English*) from the *Oxford Dictionary*. Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1911. Pp. xii+1041.

A book appearing under these auspices promises to combine the authority of the *Oxford English Dictionary* with the taste of *The King's English*. The editors have nevertheless discarded the first of these assets. Thus they have varied at will its definitions and sense order, abandoning the historical method and "treating its articles rather as quarries to be drawn from than as structures to be reproduced in little" (p. iv). Again, "the spelling is for the most part, but not invariably, that of the *Oxford English Dictionary*." So too, "in the choice or rejection of alternative pronunciations the *Oxford English Dictionary* has always been consulted, but is not always followed." Since no indication distinguishes these variations, uncertainty is ever present as to the editors' treatment of their original.

Their well-known taste does not prevent the reproduction of certain marked deficiencies. It was an amateurish eccentricity of the *Oxford English Dictionary* in the first parts to omit adjectives derived from common names. Here in like manner we find *American* but not *African*, *Babylonian* but not *Assyrian*, *Chaldean* but not *Carthaginian*, *Soudanese* but not *Algerian*, *Roumanian* and *Servian* but not *Albanian* or *Bosnian* or *Balkan*, *Northumbrian* and *Kentish* but not *Anglian* or *Mercian*, *Parisian* but not *Athenian*. Nor is this eclecticism confined to geography. One finds *Benedictine* but not *Augustinian*, *Carlovingian* but not *Arthurian*, *Leibnitzian* and *Lanmarckian* but not *Aristotelian*, *Miltonic* but not *Byronic*, the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* but not the *Aeneid*. Lest a false impression be conveyed that the deficiencies are mainly in the first letters, one should note that the editors include *Accadian* but not *Sumerian*, *Ciceronian* but not *Petrarchan*, *risacimento* but not *risorgimento*, *nolo episcopari* but not *nolo contendere*, *Sienese school* (of painting) but not *Florentine school*, *Chesterfield* (coat) but not *Raglan*, *Clio* but not *Calliope* or *Erato*, *Apollyon* but not *Apollo*.

The taste of the editors is illustrated—we venture to infer—by the banquet set before us à la carte. Though acceptably rich in wines and liqueurs, it lacks *Asti*, *Capri*, and *Montepulciano* (any of which we prefer to *Constantia*) as well as *crème de menthe* and *forbidden fruit*. The cocktail served is an unrecognizable "drink of spirit with bitters, sugar, etc." *Mocha* coffee may be had, but not *Java*; *souchong* tea, but not *oolong*; *Camembert*, *Stilton*, and *Roquefort* cheese, but (with better gustatory discernment) not *Edam*, *Neufschatel*, *Gorgonzola*, or *Limburger*. These examples exhibit sufficiently the editors' success in their "design of, on the one hand, restricting ourselves for the most part to current English, and, on the other hand, omitting nothing to which that description may fairly be applied" (p. iv).

With felicitous humor the editors acknowledge that this does not apply to technical terms. Here, say they (p. v), "the most that can be hoped for is that everyone conversant with any special vocabulary may consider us, though sadly deficient on his subject, fairly copious on others." Obviously this will not serve to inform readers. By excluding such terms and encyclopedic material, it has been the editors' aim to devote a large amount of space to the common words. This space is found to be devoted in fact chiefly to explanation of phrases, and with these the various senses of common words are run together in a single paragraph, confusing to both eye and mind. Unfortunately the classes of persons most likely to require information about common words—that is, writers in school and out—are the least qualified to be enlightened by "the curtest possible treatment . . . the adoption of telegraphese" (p. iv) to which the editors plead guilty. To quote an example: "*inform*, v. t. & i. Inspire, imbue, (person, heart, thing *with* feeling, principle, quality etc.); tell (person of thing, *that*, *how*, etc.); so *informant* n., bring charge (*against* person)." The facts are here recorded; the Chinese puzzle is easily solved—by one who knows; but is the man who depends on the dictionary informed?

The editors show unquestionably a faculty for terse and vigorous expression: such words as *vocabulary* and *vivid* represent effective entries. Their British bias is perhaps excessively marked in confining the slang use of *lobster* to designate a "British soldier," in defining *alderman* as a "magistrate in English and Irish cities and boroughs," *dormitory* as a "sleeping-room with several beds and sometimes cubicles," and *fudge*, n., as merely a "piece of fudging." It is evident again where they explain *poker* as an "American card-game for two or more persons, each of whom if not bluffed into declaring his hand bets on its value." An American marvels no less at the simplicity of their game of *bridge*—"in which each player in turn looks on while his exposed hand is played by his partner." *Euchre* they rest content with describing as an "American card game for two, three, or four persons"; *seven-up* and *hearts* they omit. But apart from Britishism, it seems misleading to define, as herein, *heredity* as "tendency of like to beget like," and *chateau* as "foreign country house." Nor does one see why *landscape* must be confined to "inland scenery." Such occasional lapses are not infrequent.

It is unfortunate, moreover, that no systematic cross-referencing has removed discrepancies in treatment. Thus *bio-* and *zoo-* are glaringly unlike. *Cinque*, *quattro*, and *trecento* vary unnecessarily, and *seicento* is omitted. Among preterites *forgave* is entered but not *gave*. The variant *douma* does not appear. *Czech* is defined as *Bohemian* and under this word finds himself no other than a "socially-unconventional (person); of free and easy habits, manners, and sometimes morals."

After all, the inexpert will turn to the authors of *The King's English* mainly for guidance to correct usage. He may be disconcerted by their easy admission of such slang terms as happened to be accessible in "the dictionaries from which our word-list is necessarily compiled" (p. v): for this is not a dictionary of standard English. He will see *phenomenal* in the sense of "remarkable" admitted without cautionary label; *mere* (lake, pond) not differentiated in usage from *grab* (seize suddenly) or *funniment* (joke, drollery). He will find it no less difficult to understand the line of demarcation between completely and incompletely naturalized words. Thus *faciæ*, *morbidessa*, and *morceau* are naturalized; not so, however, *fiancé*, *boulevard*, *boudoir*, *bourgeois*, *rôle*, and *cerebellum*. *Solidus* appears as naturalized, *denarius* not.

One turns with disappointment from so promising a work, planned with no

evident sense of the needs of a definite public, executed with too implicit faith in its immediate source, yet varying from that with no citation of other authority than the taste of its authors. The book is not worse than most small dictionaries. To the contrary! But it does not represent in combination the merits of the *Oxford English Dictionary* and *The King's English*.

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PERCY W. LONG

Selections from Early American Writers, 1607-1800. Edited by WILLIAM B. CAIRNS. New York: Macmillan, 1909. Pp. 493. \$1.25.

History of American Literature. By REUBEN POST HALLECK. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. 431. \$1.25.

There are two problems, among others, that are likely to confront one about to organize a study of American literature. The first is the problem of selection; the second, the problem of finding a principle of classification for the material selected.

To consider the first: Literary historians are doubting the honesty of the time-honored habit of declaring *Thanatopsis* "the first American poem" and Washington Irving the first American writer of literary prose. It is urged that one should know the early American writers of the years before 1800 in order to understand fully nineteenth-century American authors. In fine, the problem arises, Is it worth while to endeavor to trace development in our literature? For this endeavor after all must be the justification of such a book as Professor Cairns'.

Before 1800 America had perhaps produced one or two authors worthy of fame for their literary achievements—such men, for example, as Edwards and Freneau. Others, rather more numerous perhaps, deserve a place in the story because they were men of significant personality—men such as Captain John Smith, Governors Bradford and Winthrop, Judge Sewall, the Mathers, and (much less doubtfully) Benjamin Franklin. Opinions would differ about these and about other names, but, except to the student of American history and culture, there is perhaps no great loss if they remain mere names. Roger Williams, for example, was doubtless one of the greatest figures of his century in America; but that fact does not make *The Bloudy Tenent of Persecution for Cause of Conscience, Discussed in a Conference between Truth and Peace* exactly the sort of literary model one likes to put into the hands of a student. And if someone urges the value of illustrating archaic literary forms and tastes, there is easy reply, for one wishing rejoinder, to the effect that a third-rate specimen is hardly illuminating illustration. Roger Williams' work is strikingly significant of the fact that the movement toward more liberal thought in New England Puritanism was, usually, independent of literary expression of the thought. Hence, for any but the specialist, the broadening of religious and civic thought in New England may be studied as profitably in such works as John Fiske's *The Beginnings of Old New England* as in the original documents. The same is true of the writings of other colonies.

However, if one believes in studying the development of thought in America by means of "the original documents," Professor Cairns' book affords ample material for preliminary study, presented in scholarly fashion. To be sure, "scholarly" adherence to the orthography and punctuation of Captain John Smith does not probably enhance the purely literary charm (if there be any) of the writings, but it does give a vivid impression of the adventurer's rugged effort in turning from the sword to the pen. On the other hand, such lapses in editorial care as using "McFinga "

as title for Trumbull's poem and elsewhere consistently using the later "M'Fingal" are very infrequent and not worth notice. The book is a thoroughly satisfactory piece of work so far as illustration of the early development of thought—religious and civic—in America is concerned.

There is, however, another element of literature the development of which one might expect to find illustrated in such a book—the element of form. Here also one surely may have more than slight doubts as to whether it is profitable to cause students to pore over Anne Bradstreet or John Trumbull when they are ignorant of the models used by the American writers—of Raleigh, Spenser, Sylvester, Butler, Churchill, and other English poets little studied. If it is not thought necessary for the college undergraduate (for whose use the *Early American Writers* has been edited) to be familiar with the lesser English poets of the eighteenth century, why should this same behemoth of erudition be afflicted with *Pietas et Gratulatio*? From this last-mentioned collection of poems, to be sure, Professor Cairns gives no selection, although some of the pieces, at least, are very characteristic of their time. The omission was perhaps necessary to make room for John Seccomb's masterpiece. Another significant selection or two might show the student more clearly how America followed England in the use of the couplet. It is certainly true that American imitations of the periodical essay find scant place among these selections. The eighteenth-century prose here included, like the poetry, is readable and almost always historically significant; yet one might almost leave these "early American writers," after careful study, and believe that one great reason for Irving's pre-eminence was that he first discovered how to imitate Addison and Goldsmith. We get the incidental information that Franklin and Trumbull were both indebted to the *Spectator*, but we have not a single specimen from the scores of American imitations of *Spectator* papers. Such a lack, needless to say, limits the usefulness of the book as showing the development of prose form in America. Of course it may be that Professor Cairns believes that American imitateness has been overemphasized in the study of our literature, and perhaps it has; but surely after a study of our early writers one ought to be able to demonstrate that the Salmagundi papers do not mark the beginning of a period—if anything, the opposite is true.

All in all, the *Early American Writers* is more successful in indicating the development of thought than in illustrating the development of form. Of course no one can doubt that in this case the development of form is decidedly the less important. It is certainly possible in these selections to trace interestingly the birth of literary purpose and method in America as contrasted with writing done for merely practical purposes. The book on the whole is standard and should be very useful in the college classroom where early American literature is studied.

The second problem that may arise in a treatment of American literature—the problem of finding a satisfactory principle of classification of material—is apparent in Mr. Halleck's *History of American Literature*. Less than one-fourth of his book is concerned with "early" American writers; that is, with writers of the years before 1800. Hence it may be said that the idea of a development in American literature is relatively unemphasized. Certainly the order of presentation makes no pretense of being chronological. James Lane Allen receives attention earlier in the book than Lincoln or Mark Twain. Hawthorne precedes Poe by nearly a hundred pages. Whitman, possibly for effect of climax, is forced after Howells and Henry James, and

stands at the very end of the book—*ne plus ultra!* These seeming peculiarities are explained by the principle of classification, which is, especially in the latter parts of the book, viciously sectional. This difficulty of sectionalism will inevitably obtrude itself, but it need hardly be emphasized as in the present case, unless one is deliberately writing a book that shall commend itself to certain sections of the country sometimes neglected in such works. One fears that the publishers in this case wished hardly so much an excellent history of American literature as they did a textbook that would sell in the Middle West and the South. The classification has resulted in such startling juxtaposition as that of Lincoln, Bret Harte, and Eugene Field—all of whom, it is obvious, must have been more or less "Western." It must be doubted also whether criticism has gained much by the classification of Whitman with Howells and James as an "Eastern realist."

But, classification aside, there is much in this history that will commend itself, together with some things that will not. The book is as obviously prepared for the high school as the *Early American Writers* is for the college. Many crudities result from a too apparent attempt to improve the mind of Young America. One is excessively tried with the reiterated (and useless) remark that such and such masterpieces "may be left for mature age." No less irritating, though just as familiar, is the tone of this sort of thing: "America has no *Beowulf* celebrating the slaying of land-devastating monsters, but she has in this *Declaration [of Independence]* a deathless battle-song against the monsters that would throttle Liberty" (p. 69). It is hard to believe that Cotton Mather or Senator Lorimer could be more thrilling! Again, the reader may have one guess as to whether the following acute criticism of James Whitcomb Riley, quoted by Mr. Halleck, was written by a critic who has more than once held the popular ear as he "stumped" the state of Indiana: "The aristocrat may make verses whose perfect art renders them immortal, like Horace, or state high truths in austere beauty, like Arnold. But only the brother of the common man can tell what the common heart longs for and feels and only he lives in the understanding and affection of the millions" (p. 354). Many other equally edifying remarks are so obviously aimed at the young mind that it will have no difficulty in dodging them.

In general, the critical judgments are conservative and, perhaps, ordinary. They will commend themselves to teachers like the dear woman who recently informed the writer that she found "Franklin, Burns, and Eliot" [*sic*] a perplexing trio to study with students gifted in asking questions. The book will commend itself also because of the complete teaching apparatus supplied, which will be helpful to teachers so over-worked that time for planning class recitations is scant.

The chief merit of the history, however, is the abundance of literary "gossip" which it contains. Such bits of anecdote—together with the frequent pictures—should help to make the personalities and environments of the various authors vivid realities in the mind of the student. These things may not be critically profound, but they do for all of us heighten the charm of American literature. There is no reason to believe that they are not most effective with young students.

And yet how conscious all the publishers must be that competition is riding very hard in the matter of textbooks in American literature!

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MIDDLETOWN, CONN.

GEORGE WILEY SHERBURN

Die deutschen Landerziehungsheime. By HERMANN LIETZ. Leipzig: R. Voigtländer, 1910. Pp. 147. M. 4.00.

This thirteenth year of the German New Schools founded by Dr. Lietz is reported in most attractive form. The five divisions are represented—three for boys, Ilsenburg, Haubinda, and Bieberstein, and two for girls, Gaienhofen and Sieversdorf. One seldom finds a report so adequately illustrated by photographs. Without reference to the German text the course of the work can be seen clearly by means of the pictures of buildings, gardening, bathing, tree-felling, haymaking, recitations indoors and out-of-doors, snow-shoeing, coasting, dramatic representations: the range is very wide.

Despite numerous setbacks which would have daunted a man of less spirit, Dr. Lietz has moved steadily forward in his work. The burning of the old castle of Bieberstein has been followed by the putting up of a more adequate and even more attractive building. Secessions from the force and the difficulties of widely separated institutions for boys of various ages have led to the use of the automobile in the administration.

One of the distinctive features of the school is the scheme for foreign travel. In this year the record in text and pictures shows groups of students at Rügen, in Norway, Switzerland, Italy, Egypt, and Tunis. It is hoped that the long-deferred visit to America may take place during the present school year.

FRANK A. MANNY

THE BALTIMORE TEACHERS' TRAINING SCHOOL

Open Air Crusaders. Edited by SHERMAN C. KINGSLEY. Chicago: The United Charities, 1910. Pp. 107.

This volume contains a report of the Elizabeth McCormick open-air school, together with a general account of open-air school work in Chicago, and a chapter on school ventilation.

The open-air school movement, which originated in Germany a few years ago, has spread widely and is rapidly gaining ground in this country. These schools are usually located in the woods near the city, but the school described in this little book is situated on the roof of the Mary Crane Nursery building in the heart of Chicago. The school was conducted by the United Charities of Chicago, and the expense of maintenance, attendants, and equipment was met through a grant by the trustees of the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund. The board of education co-operated by furnishing the school equipment, the teacher, the supervision, and the whole conduct of the educational side of the work. The report covers the activities of the school year 1909-10.

Forty-nine tubercular children attended the school from October to June. They were furnished with picturesque Eskimo suits, made of heavy blankets, which they slipped over their ordinary clothing. The children arrived at eight o'clock in the morning and left at four in the afternoon. The daily routine included a bath, medical inspection, three meals, and alternating periods of study, physical activity, and rest. The results obtained were altogether satisfactory. The children were all improved physically, and they made rapid progress in their school work. Furthermore, the school made a strong plea for the rights of handicapped children, and it had considerable influence in bringing about better ventilation in the schoolrooms of Chicago.

This book also contains chapters describing Chicago's first open-air school and Chicago's first open-window school, a paper on ventilation of schoolrooms, a chart showing the methods and results of open-air schools in eight American cities, and a bibliography of the open-air school movement.

GEORGE L. MEYLAN

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The Teaching of Agriculture in the High School. By GARLAND ARMOR BRICKER. With an Introduction by W. C. BAGLEY. New York: Macmillan, 1911. Pp. xxv+202. \$1.00 net.

The rapid spread of agricultural instruction in the public schools makes welcome every attempt to furnish criteria for selection of materials and guiding principles for their presentation, even though we have, as yet, too little recorded experience of successful practice in teaching agriculture to serve as a basis of confident advice.

This book performs a distinct service in seeking to state the problem and to offer definite suggestions for its solution by showing how the organization of the materials should be conditioned on known laws of mental activity. While the attempt is made in the first chapter to define secondary-school agriculture as something that "lies between the two extremes" of the agriculture of the elementary grades and the professional and research work of the college, the only real standards available are those like the excellent exercises in chaps. ix and x, supplemented by familiar texts for comparison.

The rise and development of secondary education in agriculture in the United States and a statement of the diverse legislative sanctions under which agriculture is taught are presented in chap. ii as clearly as possible in so brief a treatment. Under the circumstances a proper differentiation of types is difficult; for instance, the four technical schools of Arkansas and the state-supported agricultural departments added to ten Virginia high schools already established could hardly be called "congressional-district agricultural schools."

The chapter on the social results of secondary agriculture is an argument from a priori grounds, and is not a sociological study. Only a very small beginning has been made in the collection of the statistics necessary for such a study. However, the discussion will be suggestive to workers in the rural field.

The rather energetic contention in chap. iv that "secondary agriculture should be taught as a separate science" will not stir up the opposition it may have done when it appeared in *Education* three years ago. The other thing simply is not noticed now by educational statisticians. To fail to use agricultural applications in the conventional sciences is as reprehensible as to omit applications found in the kitchen, the shop, or in commerce.

Probably the most notable contribution in this book to educational theory as applied to agricultural instruction is furnished by the chapter on the psychological determination of sequence and the complementary discussion on seasonal determination of sequence. A specialist in agricultural education could hardly fail, after spending a year with Dr. Bagley, to present something of value by way of making direct application of present-day psychology to the specific problem. The reviewer had this chapter read by an instructor in psychology who has shown skill both in teaching and in research, though without special interest in natural science. From his standpoint the adaptation was ably made. While the reaction was probably

typical for this class of readers, it might be quite different in the case of the ordinary teachers of agriculture, for the language of psychology is somewhat strange to the uninitiated. The chapter is worth careful perusal even at the cost of some mental effort.

The chapter on the organization of the course is a disappointment in that it seems only to plan for an elementary course continuing through but a single year, and makes no attempt either to evaluate the subdivisions of agricultural subject-matter with reference to the different years of the curriculum or to suggest how best to utilize the well-established sciences of the earlier and later years. These are important considerations, for not less than two hundred and fifty public high schools in 1911-12 have agriculture taught in two or more years, not to mention fifty or more special schools. It is only just to state that the number of high schools with the more extensive courses was only about sixty when the manuscript was completed—so rapidly is the movement growing.

The chapters on aims and methods of presentation, the organization of the laboratory and field work, and that containing an illustrative list of classified exercises, are full of practical suggestions regarding the technique of instruction. The twenty-nine illustrations, arranged on seventeen plates, are well executed and chosen with discrimination, being better calculated to give an idea of real student activities than is often the case in agricultural publications. The index, consisting of twelve pages, is especially complete. One wonders why the publishers did not group the thirteen or more pages of ten-point references at the end of each chapter or in the appendix, instead of cluttering up the pages with them to the distraction of the reader, even though they do add an air of profundity to the page. They are useful only to the investigator.

Fundamentals of Agriculture. Edited by JAMES EDWARD HALLIGAN. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1911. Pp. iv+492. \$1.20.

The encyclopedic flavor of several agricultural texts has drawn forth criticism from many quarters. This book outdoes its competitors in this respect. As a reference book for schools unable to acquire even a small departmental library it should prove of distinct value. Many of the twenty-eight collaborators are well known outside the circle of workers in their special fields and are authors of standard works.

While the chapter headings are conventional, a list of the seventy-eight subdivisions would show the wide range of topics treated, in most cases quite intensively. One such, "The Injury of Gas and Electricity to Trees," is as unusual as is the English of its title. The book is quite free from one fault pointed out in some agricultural texts, namely, that they leave out agriculture—the raising of crops and the care of animals. The illustrations often suffer from poor execution and are sometimes rather pointless.

Though possessing distinct merit as a reference book, the claim that the work is adapted for use as a textbook is open to question and deserves more than passing note, especially so since the study of agriculture is increasing so rapidly and since its methods of instruction show such improvement. The marked unevenness of treatment is incidental to the number of contributors. The discussion of bees is briefer and more simple than that given in certain well-known nature-study handbooks. Other topics clearly should not be attempted below the eleventh or twelfth grade. An example of avoidable duplication is found in the fact that the same amount

of space is given to nitrifying bacteria in two chapters by different authors without a justifying difference of point of view.

Although only a small part of the book could be covered in one year if accompanied by the desirable amount of experimental work, no divisions indicate an intention to adapt the book progressively to different years, or to take account of the presence in the curriculum of the well-established sciences. The chapter on plant life attempts the rather dubious task of compressing into twenty-nine pages a survey of all botany, both physiological and morphological, from protophytes up. Two pages are given to flower structure and six to plant-breeding. Incidentally the terms "fertilization" and "pollination" seem to be used interchangeably. On one page the ovules are said to be fertilized; on the next it is the pistil that is fertilized. Surely if the student has had no botany before he needs more than is here provided, while if he has had a good course in the subject valuable space is wasted in presenting such a fragmentary treatment. In the generally excellent treatment of economic insects, from the standpoint of high-school use, the brief introduction seems to assume no previous zoölogy. The student should get somewhere a better conception of the zoölogical setting of insects, and of other groups as well, than is afforded in this book. On the other hand, the chapter on manures and fertilizing materials frankly presupposes some chemistry, a subject occurring in the curriculum later, usually, than botany or zoölogy. The same may be said of other material furnished by the editor.

The strong tendencies in secondary-school agriculture point to the need of a book or series departing more radically than does this from conventional lines. Pedagogical treatment should be held to be equal in importance with the facts stated.

C. H. ROBISON

UPPER MONTCLAIR, N.J.

Elementary Modern Chemistry. By WILHELM OSTWALD and HARRY W. MORSE.
Boston: Ginn & Co., 1909. Pp. xi+291. \$1.00.

In their preface, the authors of this compact little book state that they have planned to present a sufficient number of facts and experiments to fill the time usually devoted to a first course, and at the same time have endeavored to fit these facts, as far as possible, to the simpler of the general laws now firmly established as the basis of the science of chemistry. Among the selected facts and experiments themselves one cannot expect to find any great divergence from the practice of many modern school texts. There are many simple diagrams, and these, in the main, are excellent; one exception, however, is that on p. 158, which shows a remarkably clear nitrate ring instead of a disc.

As might be anticipated, any abnormality that this book exhibits is on the side of theory and philosophical presentation of the facts. "A body which is studied with reference to its specific properties is called a substance" (p. 2). "Any solid whatever can be changed into a liquid if its temperature is raised to a high enough point" (p. 6). "A chemical reaction takes place more rapidly the higher the temperature" (p. 20). "Aluminium has all the properties common to metals except weight" (p. 27). These and other statements occurring later indicate that, to be used successfully, this book must be in the hands of a good teacher. But the errors are few, and the book is well produced. It may certainly be said that there are many books in the field which this one could with advantage displace.

Essentials of Chemistry: Experimental, Descriptive, Theoretical. By RUFUS PHILLIPS WILLIAMS. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1910. Pp. ix+421. \$1.25.

In harmony with the aim of most high-school chemistry-teaching in this country, the object of this book is to put the pupil in possession of the essential facts rather than to teach him how to investigate. Whether, in the high school, it is wise to sacrifice the teaching of scientific method for the teaching of chemical fact is a question which need not here concern us.

The pupil is early introduced to atoms and molecules. Thus on p. 7 we read: "The spaces separating atoms are much greater than the atoms themselves. Lines drawn halfway between consecutive atoms of an element like hydrogen give a boundary and inclose what may be called the volume of the atom or the *atomic volume*. . . . By a law which we shall study a little later (chap. xlv), *molecular volumes* are the same for all gases. Each is twice the hydrogen-atom volume. . . ." Chemical formulae, which follow soon, are deliberately called symbols (p. 23). Whether or no this be a desirable change in nomenclature, it will cause confusion to those pupils who venture to extend their chemical reading.

The book has eighty chapters, which run mainly in pairs, an experimental chapter on any topic being followed by a descriptive chapter. This is a good arrangement. That the author is no novice in teaching facts is shown by many other good arrangements, by his employment of several fonts of type, and by the numerous clear illustrations. "Properties of substances are usually tabulated, and may thus be easily memorized." In the experimental chapters many questions are set for answer in laboratory notebooks. Thus, typically, in experiment 39, the pupil, after burning magnesium in oxygen, is asked, "Ought the product of this combustion to weigh more or less than the original magnesium?" No attempt is made to settle the question experimentally. Toward the end of the book time is apparently too short for any experiment, but the facts are given in seventeen uninterrupted descriptive chapters. The presentation is interesting and the information seems to be in general accurate, although occasionally loose statements are found, as on p. 251: "Carbonic acid is also used for bread-making, . . . and is employed very extensively in the alkali manufacture, for example, in Na_2CO_3 "; and on p. 298: "Below 600° the iodine molecule has two atoms; above that, one atom."

There is no doubt that the book will successfully meet the needs of many teachers; and the character of these needs, rather than the author, is largely to blame for what faults the book may possess.

Progressive Problems in General Chemistry. By CHARLES BASKERVILLE and W. L. ESTABROOKE. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1910. Pp. vi+243.

This little book is a compilation of problems from such various sources as "college examinations (American, European, and Australian), regents' examinations, College Entrance Examination Board papers, textbooks of all kinds," and from the various books on chemical calculations. It includes also many original problems.

According to their subjects, the problems are distributed into fourteen chapters, some of which, nevertheless, remain sufficiently miscellaneous. The total number of problems (which, if the reviewer's arithmetic has successfully stood the strain, is 2,497) "is sufficiently great to admit of the use of the book a number of years before solutions of the problems may be handed down from one class to another." In the compilation of this large number, one would expect evidence of haste. One finds it in the

headings of the odd pages 181-223 inclusive, which should read "miscellaneous," not "systematic," review. The work, however, may not have been corrected in page proof.

Many teachers will find it simpler to invent their own problems, especially as no answers are here given. Students reviewing will also require answers. Let us in patience, therefore, await the time when Messrs. Baskerville and Estabrooke, having asked these many questions, may in due course answer them.

ALAN W. C. MENZIES

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Second Course in Algebra. By HERBERT E. HAWKES, WILLIAM A. LUBY, and FRANK C. TOUTON. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1911. Pp. vi+264. \$0.75.

This book was planned to review the topics treated in the author's *First Course in Algebra* and to present those additional subjects considered necessary for the best secondary schools. Though the review is brief, it covers all the essential points and gives each topic a broader treatment than was possible in a first course. There is much new material, including biographical and historical notes, graphs for purposes of illustration, problems based on geometry and physics, and some real applied problems.

As it was the desire of the authors to relieve the teacher of much of the work of explanation, the explanations are very full and there are many illustrative examples. The treatment of ratio, proportion, and variation is unusually clear and comprehensive, and it includes a good list of practical problems. The authors seem to have fulfilled their desire "to produce a text that is modern, lucid, mathematically correct, and interesting," and it can be commended to teachers who wish to use a modern but conservative textbook.

H. E. COBB

LEWIS INSTITUTE
CHICAGO

Elements of Applied Mathematics. By HERBERT E. COBB. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1911. Pp. viii+274.

This book represents a new type of mathematical textbook for this country. It also represents the latest and best ideas and ideals in the teaching of mathematics. Whether in use the book will prove satisfactory for teachers generally can be told only by experience. Mimeographed copies of it, as stated in the preface, have been used for several years, so that presumably all its exercises have been carefully tested.

The book can be put to either of two uses: it can be employed as a regular textbook, although, consisting largely of sets of problems, it does not fit into American conditions very well for such use; or it can be used as a supplementary exercise book. We have seen the idea of the use in schools of supplementary texts in reading literature, and history grow rapidly in this country within the past quarter of a century; but the definite use of supplementary textbooks in mathematics and science may strike readers as something of a novelty. In Germany the exercise books in mathematics, of course, have a well-established place, and it is likely the trend will be toward them more and more in this country.

By cutting the first year's course in algebra here and there, and more especially by omitting the more complicated and difficult exercises—with none of the essentials suffering—the algebra can be enriched by adding to the required work the earlier

chapters, say pp. 1-90, of the present text, with a material strengthening of the pupils in algebra itself, in arithmetic, and in geometrical ideas as a preparation for geometry proper. The next hundred pages are adapted for supplementary work while the pupils are studying plane geometry, and the latter part of the book for supplementary work toward the end of the high-school course, giving a review of solid geometry and physics. The work as a whole constitutes an excellent mathematical preparation of the pupil for the actual affairs of life.

Three or four features of the book deserve special commendation: First, its use of the laboratory method, according to which the pupil himself prepares or secures the data on which his calculations are based. Much has been written of late years concerning this method, but Professor Cobb's book is the first practical means presented to us of taking this problem out of the air and putting it on a real foundation. Second, its attempt to introduce real applied problems within the pupil's grasp throughout. Third, its attempt to unify mathematics by mingling arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. Fourth, its training in the use of squared paper. The chapter on logarithmic squared paper is a new feature not found elsewhere in a text-book. Professor Cobb is generally recognized as the highest authority in this country on the use of squared paper, and this subject shows everywhere great care and acumen in its preparation.

The school for which the exercises were prepared is, of course, a technical school, and teachers in ordinary schools will probably find exercises here and there, possibly a considerable number, which they will prefer to omit. The large number of exercises in the book will perhaps make this necessary in any case. In most schools, also, numerous instruments and objects referred to in the text will probably have to be borrowed from the physics laboratory.

Teachers of secondary mathematics generally will do well to procure a copy of this work with a view to seeing if they can make use of it as a supplementary text, or can introduce it into some part of their course.

JOSEPH V. COLLINS

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
STEVENS POINT, WISCONSIN

BOOKS RECEIVED

EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY

- Causes of the Elimination of Students in Public Secondary Schools of New York City.* By JOSEPH KING VAN DENBURG. (Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 47.) New York: Columbia University, 1911. Pp. iv+206. \$1.50.
- The Psychology of Education.* By J. WELTON. London: Macmillan, 1911. Pp. xxi+507. \$2.40 net.
- Fundamental Facts for the Teacher.* By ELMER BURRITT BRYAN. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1911. Pp. 111. \$1.00.
- The Reminiscences of James Burrill Angell.* London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1912. Pp. vii+258. With a portrait. \$1.35.
- Selbstbetätigung und Schaffensfreude in Erziehung und Unterricht, mit besonderer Berücksichtigung des ersten Schuljahres.* Von W. WETEKAMP. Dritte, stark vermehrte Auflage, nebst einem Anhang: "Wie ich die Idee der Selbstbestätigung in 3 jähr. Schularbeit durchzuführen suchte," von PAUL BORCHERT, und 20 Tafeln. Leipzig: Teubner, 1912. Pp. vi+112. M. 2.00.
- Forschung und Unterricht in der Jugendkunde.* Im Auftrage des Ausschusses für Jugendkunde herausgegeben von OTTO LIPMANN und WILLIAM STERN. Erster Teil: *Systematische Uebersicht über die bestehenden Veranstaltungen.* (Arbeiten des Bundes für Schulreform allgemeinen deutschen Verbandes für Erziehungs- und Unterrichtswesen.) Leipzig: Teubner, 1912. Pp. vi+42. M. 1.20.

ENGLISH

- Legends of Long Ago ("Sieben Legenden").* By GOTTFRIED KELLER. Translated by CHARLES HART HANDSCHIN. Chicago: The Abbey Co., 1911. Pp. 96.
- Teubner's School Texts: Standard English Authors. General Editors: F. DOERR, L. PETRY. *Walter Besant's Elizabethan London.* Edited by M. DENBY and W. BOHM. Text, pp. iv+95, with 10 illustrations and a map; paper, M. 0.60 linen, M. 0.90. Notes, pp. 56; paper, M. 0.60. *Spencer's Social Statics* (chap. xxx, "General Considerations"). Edited by CHARLES F. ALLAN and R. BESSER. Text, pp. iv+80, with a portrait; paper, M. 0.60, linen, M. 0.90. Notes, pp. 40, with a full-page illustration; paper, M. 0.50.
- Selected Poems for Required Reading in Secondary Schools.* Edited with Introduction and Notes by HENRY W. BOYNTON. New York: Macmillan, 1911. Pp. xxxiii+342. With a portrait. \$0.25.
- How to Write Letters That Win.* 9th edition. Chicago: The System Co., 1911. Pp. 128.
- First Lessons in English for Foreigners in Evening Schools.* By FREDERICK HOUGHTON. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. 150. Illustrated. \$0.40.

English for New Americans. By W. STANWOOD FIELD and MARY E. COVENEY, Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1911. Pp. 352. Illustrated.

LATIN AND GERMAN

Second Year Latin for Sight Reading: Selections from Caesar and Nepos. By ARTHUR L. JANES. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. 238. With illustrations and a map. \$0.40.

Third Year Latin for Sight Reading: Selections from Sallust and Cicero. By JOHN EDMUND BARSS. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. 123. \$0.40.

A Manual of Latin Word Formation for Secondary Schools. By PAUL R. JENKS. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1911. Pp. v+81.

An Introduction to German. By EDUARD PROKOSCH. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1911. Pp. 316. With a map. \$1.15.

HISTORY

The Pathbreakers from River to Ocean: The Story of the Great West from the Time of Coronado to the Present. By GRACE RAYMOND HEBARD. Chicago: The Lakeside Press, 1911. Pp. xi+263. With maps and illustrations.

The Story of Cotton and the Development of the Cotton States. By EUGENE CLYDE BROOKS. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1911. Pp. x+370. With maps and illustrations. \$0.75.

MATHEMATICS

An Introductory Algebra. By JOHN H. WALSH. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1911. Pp. ix+214.

Practical Algebra: Second Course. By JOSEPH V. COLLINS. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. x+303. With cuts and diagrams. \$0.85.

Plane Geometry. By C. A. HART and DANIEL D. FELDMAN, with the Editorial Cooperation of J. H. TANNER and VIRGIL SNYDER. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. viii+303. With cuts and diagrams. \$0.80.

SCIENCE

Biological Aspects of Human Problems. By CHRISTIAN A. HERTER. New York: Macmillan, 1911. Pp. xvii+344. \$1.50 net.

A Practical Course in Botany, with Especial Reference to Its Bearings on Agriculture, Economics, and Sanitation. By E. F. ANDREWS, with Editorial Revision by FRANCIS E. LLOYD. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. ix+374. Illustrated. \$1.25.

Productive Farming. By KARY CADMUS DAVIS. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1911. Pp. viii+357. Illustrated.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS¹

IRENE WARREN

Librarian, School of Education, The University of Chicago

- AFFLECK, G. B. Bibliography of physical training. June-October, 1911. *Am. Phys. Educa. R.* 16:579-92. (D. '11.)
- ALLISON, SAMUEL B. Vocational courses and the elementary school. *School and Home Educa.* 31:155-58. (D. '11.)
- ANDRESS, J. MACE. The aims, values, and methods of teaching psychology in a normal school. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 2:541-54. (D. '11.)
- BAGLEY, W. C. The outcomes of teaching. *School and Home Educa.* 31:140-44. (D. '11.)
- BALDWIN, CHARLES SEARS. Intercollegiate debate. *Educa. R.* 42:475-85. (D. '11.)
- BARDEEN, C. W. The monopolizing woman teacher. *Educa. R.* 43:17-40. (Ja. '12.)
- BLACK, JESSIE, and WARREN, IRENE. A brief suggestive list of reading for children in the elementary school. *El. School T.* 12:145-50. (D. '11.)
- BOBBITT, JOHN FRANKLIN. The efficiency of the consolidated rural school. *El. School T.* 12:169-75. (D. '11.)
- BOURNE, HENRY ELDRIDGE. The liberation of good will. *Univ. of Chic. M.* 4:1-13. (N. '11.)
- BROWN, J. STANLEY. The functions of a modern high school in a system of public schools. *School and Home Educa.* 31:144-47. (D. '11.)
- CAPEN, SAMUEL P. The supervision of college teaching. *Pedagog. Sem.* 18:543-50. (D. '11.)
- COLLINS, JOSEPH V. How to get greater efficiency in arithmetic. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 6:103-10. (D. '11.)
- CONKLIN, EDMUND S. The pedagogy of college ethics. *Pedagog. Sem.* 18:421-74. (D. '11.)

¹ Abbreviations.—*Am. Phys. Educa. R.*, American Physical Educational Review; *Atlan.*, Atlantic Monthly; *Cent.*, Century Magazine; *Educa.*, Education; *Educa. Bi-mo.*, Educational Bi-monthly; *Educa. R.*, Educational Review; *El. School T.*, Elementary School Teacher; *Harp. W.*, Harper's Weekly; *Journ. of Educa. Psychol.*, Journal of Educational Psychology; *New England M.*, New England Magazine; *Pedagog. Sem.*, Pedagogical Seminary; *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, Popular Science Monthly; *School and Home Educa.*, School and Home Education; *School R.*, School Review; *School W.*, School World; *Univ. of Chic. M.*, University of Chicago Magazine; *Voca. Educa.*, Vocational Education.

- COOK, JOHN W. History of education. XV. School and Home Educa. 31:149-55. (D. '11.)
- COOLEY, EDWIN G. Pre-apprenticeship schools of London. Voca. Educa. 1:174-83. (Ja. '12.)
- COOPER, CLAYTON SEDGWICK. The American undergraduate. Cent. 83: 377-87. (Ja. '12.)
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- ELIOT, CHARLES W. The university president in the American commonwealth. Educa. R. 42:433-49. (D. '11.)
- FISHBACK, E. H. The supervision of teachers. Educa. 32:234-36. (D. '11.)
- GAYLER, G. W. A study of the enrolment by grades of fourteen school systems of central Illinois. School and Home Educa. 31:147-49. (D. '11.)
- GRANT, PERCY STICKNEY. A Puritan school. New England M. 45:286-94. (N. '11.)
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- GRUENBERG, BENJAMIN C. Some aspects of the child-welfare problem in the New York high schools. School R. 19:684-88. (D. '11.)
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- HALE, WILLIAM GARDNER. The practical value of humanistic studies. School R. 19:657-79. (D. '11.)
- HANDSCHIN, C. H. Problems in the teaching of modern languages. Educa. 32:203-13. (D. '11.)
- HEETER, S. L. The school of tomorrow. Educa. R. 42:465-74. (D. '11.)
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- HOLTZ, FREDERICK L. Pedagogical problems in nature-study. Journ. of Educa. Psychol. 2:564-68. (D. '11.)
- JACKSON, EDWIN R. Forestry in agriculture. Voca. Educa. 1:184-92. (Ja. '12.)
- JACKSON, NELSON A. The mission of the private school. Educa. 32:214-19. (D. '11.)
- JORDAN, W. H. The function and efficiency of the agricultural college. Science 34:773-85. (8 D. '11.)

- JUDD, CHARLES H. Studies in principles of education. *El. School T.* 12:176-85. (D. '11.)
- JUDSON, HARRY PRATT. The idea of research. *Univ. of Chic. M.* 4:14-18. (N. '11.)
- LEAVITT, FRANK M. The David Ranken Jr. school of mechanic trades. *Voca. Educa.* 1:159-73. (Ja. '12.)
- . The relation of the present movement for vocational education to the teaching of the mechanic arts. *El. School T.* 12:158-68. (D. '11.)
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